Saturday Review

SEPTEMBER 10, 1955 / 20¢

REVIEW: A LAYMAN'S GUIDE TO WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION

H. L. Mencken at Seventy-five—Two Articles, by William Manchester and Alistair Cooke.

THE COLLEGES PLAN FOR THE WARTIME BABY CROP

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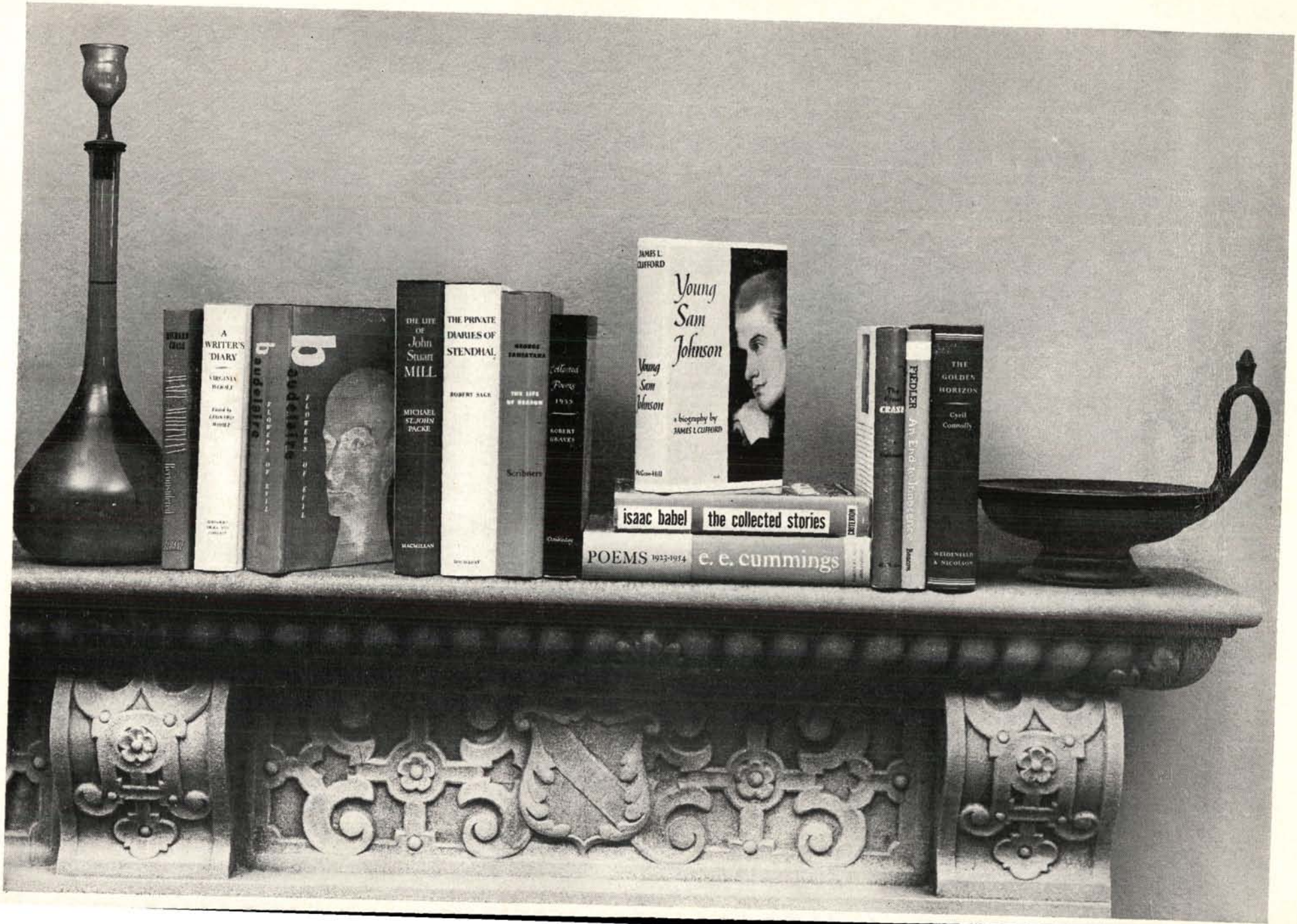

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Editor at Large

When I was young I used to have a girl in Washington, D.C. Our paths diverged long ago, but because she was my first girl, I followed her career with more than casual (and even a little more than fraternal) interest.

She wanted to be a newspaperwoman, and she had just enough talent to be a fairly good one. Before she was out of college, she fell in love with a brilliant and erratic young reporter from one of the wire services. She seriously considered marrying him.

Whether she did or not, I won't say. But I will say that I was reminded of her when I read Herman Wouk's novel, "Marjorie Morningstar."

In his first novel since "The Caine Mutiny," Wouk has written about a New York girl who hopes for a career on the stage and who falls in love with a brilliant and erratic young songwriter.

Marjorie Morningstar is familiar to all of us. She visits my office regularly looking for a career in publishing. She stands behind the woman who makes a success in business; she is the faintly remembered ghost shut up in the memory book of many a suburban housewife. She is the talented girl who chooses between the excitement of a career and the security of home and a family, between a soaring passion and an earth-based marriage.

Herman Wouk has written a love story which is even more significant because the situation it deals with is so familiar.

I read it with unabated enthusiasm. I think you will do the same.

L. L. Day
EDITOR-AT-LARGE

"Marjorie Morningstar" ($4.95), by Herman Wouk, is published by Doubleday & Company, 575 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. It is the September selection of the Book-of-the-Month Club. Copies may be obtained from your own bookseller, or from any of the 30 Doubleday Book Shops, including the suburban branches located in Manhasset, L. I.; Grosse Point, Michigan; Webster Groves, Missouri; Clayton, Missouri; and at 6315 York Rd., Baltimore, Maryland.

The Saturday Review

SEPTEMBER 10, 1955

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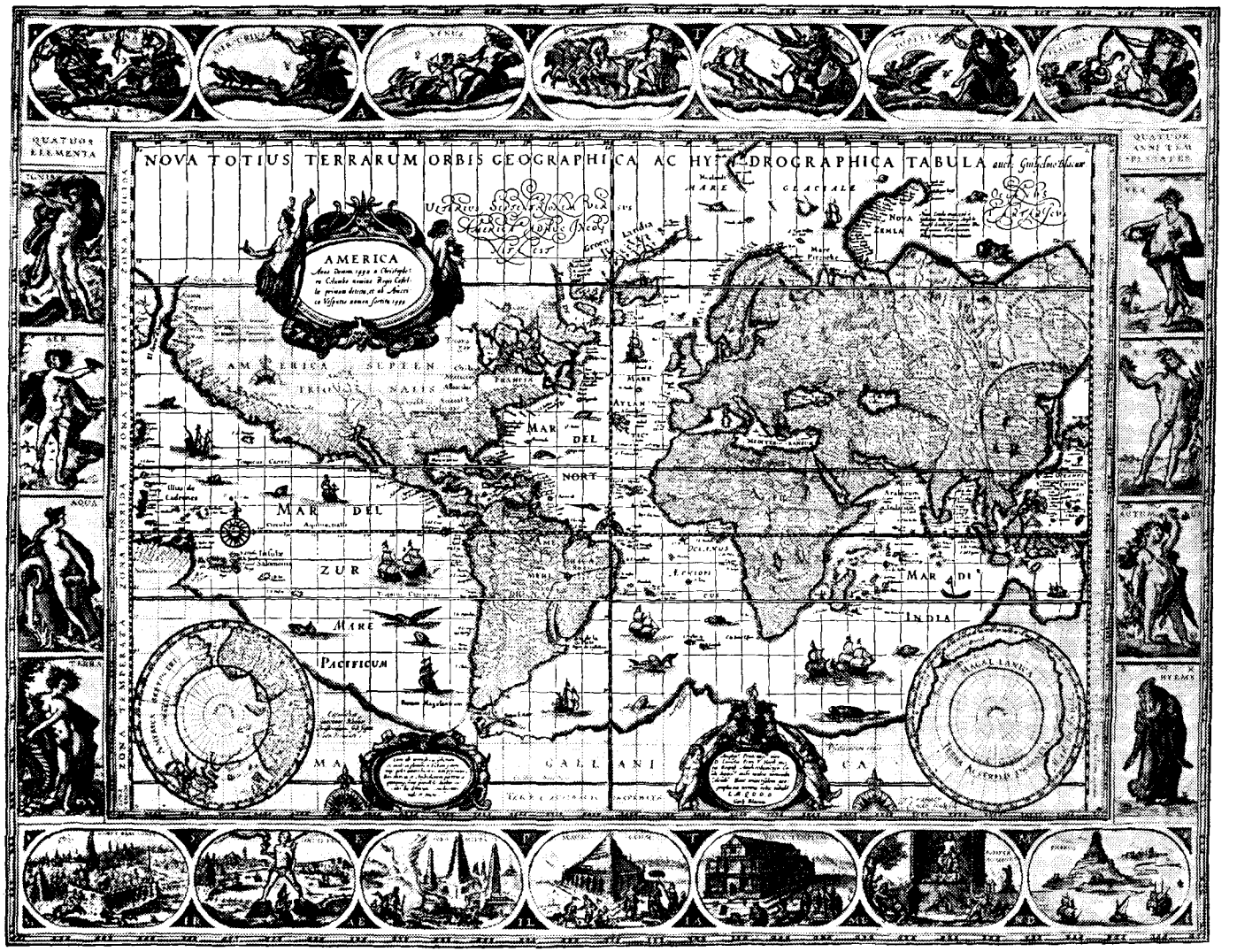

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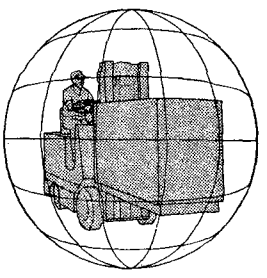

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TRADE Winds

AT ABOUT 2:30 on one of those very hot August afternoons I was riding in a taxi northward on Park Avenue. Directly ahead was a people-packed station wagon. On its lowered tailboard was a mattress; and on the mattress a boy, perhaps nine or ten. He was lying in typical small-boy position: his left leg was bent, his right leg was crossed over it, his head hung outward off the tailboard so that any jolt threatened to toss him to the street. In his hands directly above his head was a book, and in this impossible position he was reading. Name of the book? "Why Johnny Can't Read."

THE PROBLEM OF MAKING Johnny and Mary read has come in for a lot of rightful attention lately. The Book Manufacturers' Institute has come up with a plan sponsored by Sidney Satenstein of American Book-Stratford Press. The plan consists of a series of incentives for reading and is based on the Boy Scout system which promotes a youngster on his merits from tenderfoot to First Class to Life and Eagle Scout. Under this projected plan children would receive various badges, medals, and certificates, depending upon the amount of reading they do. I am told that the American Library Association opposes the plan. However, it has found favor elsewhere. It has been adopted by the Board of Education of New York City and will be tested there this fall.

ANOTHER PLAN that I think deserves testing was suggested a while back by Clifton Fadiman. He said that children who when they are very young are read aloud to are more likely to grow into readers than ones who are not given this experience. He was all for sending accomplished readers-aloud to the lower grades of schools for this purpose. A number of publishers agreed with Fadiman and this still may become a method for inculcating a love of books.

ONE CAN'T MENTION FADIMAN without wistfully remembering "Information Please." Certainly that was one of the greatest of broadcast quiz shows, and I can't believe there aren't still millions who would welcome it weekly into their living rooms via either radio or television. Proof of its continued popularity is manifest each year when the week-long book festival is held on New York's radio station WNYC. One of the most popular features of the Festival is a literary quiz with Fadiman as emcee and four authors and critics as quizees. This program is heard in New York and subsequently in other cities which have municipal or otherwise non-commercial stations. The quiz is always recorded in advance and usually before a live audience. (Live audience is not a tautology. Lots of television shows you see have audience sounds dubbed in, and that's why the "audience" seems to be laughing so much harder than you are.) Next year's literary quiz will be recorded this fall, some months in advance of its use. It will be recorded, as a matter of fact, during the meeting in New York of the National Council of Teachers of English. Mr. Fadiman has again agreed to play his indispensable part, and a committee is now lining up the four victims who will sit on the other side of the table. The big need is for questions—any kind of questions—having to do with literature in any of its forms. This is an open invitation to readers of TRADE WINDS to send in questions. Address them to this column, care of *The Saturday Review*, 25 West 45th Street, New York. If your questions are used you will be rewarded only in Heaven; and if the experts fail to answer a question positively nobody will get a washing machine. All questions become the property of TRADE WINDS, WNYC, the Literary Quiz, and anybody who happens to find them lying around on a desk. The decision of the judges will be final and there are no judges.

THE FIRST TIME I met Ivan Sanderson was in the pages of "Animal Treasure." In that delightfully written and illustrated personal adventure Sanderson told of expeditions to hot and steamy jungles in search of animals whose existence was suspected but had yet to be proved. When he put his first expedition together he took along as aides a number of his fellow Englishmen, selected for their height, weight, muscles, and athletic skill. It seemed to him that in coping with the rigors of the jungle he'd best be assisted by men who had proved their prowess on the rugby field, the cricket wicket, or in the eight-oared shell. No sooner had the expedition encountered the jungle than these men were felled by malaria, beri-beri, and every other hazard of the clime. Sanderson returned to Europe and prepared a second expedition, but this time he chose his associates from among the most constant

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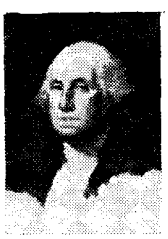

1. Was George Washington a 4-F?—so indicates "A Medical Profile of George Washington", in which an eminent 20th Century physician points out that Washington suffered from malaria, TB, smallpox, dysentery, and pneumonia. Illustrated with the Gilbert Stuart portrait in full color (for which *Washington's cheeks were stuffed with cotton, to conceal the ravages of illness*).

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denizens of Parisian dives. He chose men who for years hadn't breathed any air that wasn't heavily laden with absinthe fumes. He chose men who were unaccustomed to seeing daylight because they slept through it. These fellows, desecrated and depraved, took to the jungle as if they had been born in it. You couldn't poison them. You couldn't even sicken them. To them the dankest reaches of the Belgian Congo smelled no worse, felt no worse, and were no worse than what they had daily—or nightly—been accustomed to in their favorite Parisian cellars.

THAT FIRST MEETING with Sanderson was in 1937. My most recent meeting with him was the other day when Jane Kerr of Hanover House, Sanderson, and I sat and talked about his forthcoming "Living Mammals of the World": a volume of more than 200,000 words covering all the mammals known—including that relatively rare species, you—(half the world's mammals are mice, not men) and illustrated with hundreds of photographs, lots of them in full color.

I had, some months previously, been one of a group before which Sanderson had showed some animals. One of the animals while perching on Sanderson's shoulder electrified the group—no, I had better not go into that, but the little fellow simply wasn't trained yet! As on his weekly appearances on Garry Moore's TV show, Sanderson had on that occasion showed incredible poise. Now I had a chance to ask him from what this derived. And, especially, how come that he got purrs and happy grunts from beasties when most people would be darn lucky not to be clawed and bitten. "Very simple," said Ivan. "You've got to have manners and be properly respectful. Animals are very responsive to manners and respect." I asked him what had been the biggest animal that he had handled and he told me of the eight-foot elephant which had once participated in the Garry Moore program. Seems that this was right after New Year's Eve and they had painted the elephant an appropriate morning-after pink. Painting him wasn't so easy because ordinary paint is absorbed by an elephant's hide. They had to put on a mixture of make-up base and pink paint, and this posed something of a problem as the Make-up Union wouldn't let its members apply paint and the Painters' Union wouldn't let its members apply make-up, and I never did find out how they avoided a jurisdictional strike in the studio that day. Sanderson told how on first meeting the elephant he squatted down, looked the elephant in the eye, and smiled respectfully and politely at him. "Stooped down?" I asked.

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"Wouldn't the eye of an eight-foot elephant be way up there?" Mr. Sanderson assured me that it wouldn't, that an elephant's eye is low in its enormous head and is only about five-foot-five off the ground. Hmmm! The film of "Oklahoma!" isn't opening at the Rivoli in New York until October 12, so there's still time to change that line about how high the corn was on that beautiful morning.

I WANTED TO KNOW WHEN Mr. Sanderson first became a naturalist. He told me he was only five when he started to collect moths. Some time later, when he went to Eton, he wanted to take special studies in biology but an Eton boy can't take special studies unless his grades in required subjects are very high. He managed the high grades in spite of the fact than an Eton student's day is fourteen hours long and the penalties for ignorance and impudence are very serious—up to and including solemn birchings. He continued his studies at Cambridge, where he took degrees in zoology, geology, and botany. Thereafter began a series of expeditions in the course of which he discovered four species and five subspecies never discovered and identified before.

Nowadays he spends part of his time at his farm near the Delaware Water Gap, where he has a zoo with an animal population of more than 100 small mammals and carrion-eating birds, many of which have been taught to sit still before a TV camera. (Want to try your skill on Jerry Lewis, Ivan?) It's the biggest privately-owned zoo in the United States. Last year 21,000 people visited it in fourteen weeks. Among the mammals there which Mr. Sanderson has tamed is a shrew. Not named Kate.

I WAS FASCINATED by what he had told me of the rigors of an English gentleman's education. What, I asked, had he gotten out of so much study. "Manners and respect," he said. And there we were back to our beginning: the secret of his very special way with things that crawl, pad, climb, and fly. I couldn't help asking another and final question. I wanted to know how in his opinion an Englishman could be disciplined so strictly, be taught manners and respect so rigorously, and still remain a pleasant, easy-going chap, whereas so many Germans given the same discipline, trained rigorously to the same manners and respect have turned out quite differently. Ivan grinned. "The English," he said, "have a sense of humor." —ALAN GREEN.

TRADE WINDS *is being conducted by Alan Green while Bennett Cerf is on vacation.*

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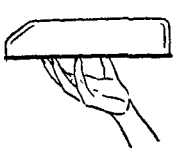

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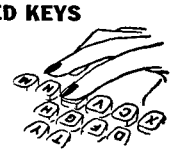

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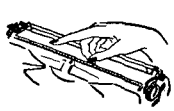

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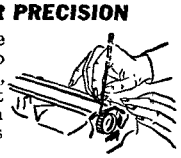

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What makes a newspaper great?

Around the newsroom of the Minneapolis Star and Tribune Victor Cohn is known as the man who is 44 years ahead of his time.

Few of the marvels predicted for 1999 A.D. will come as a surprise to Cohn, whether or not he is still around to observe them. A skyful of rocket ships, a seaful of growing crops, man-made weather, robot factory workers, atomic power plants ...all the daydreams dear to science-fiction literature are today as real and logical to Victor Cohn as the submarine *Nautilus* or Jonas Salk's polio vaccine, a couple of other dreams that came true during the two years Cohn spent marshalling facts for his monumental series of Minneapolis Tribune articles called "1999", a brilliant, authentic forecast of life as it will be lived by American families at the end of the 20th Century.

Perhaps no other feature story appearing in the Upper Midwest's favorite newspapers has ever required the fantastic amount of research and preparation which this Minneapolis Star and Tribune science writer devoted to giving authority and authenticity to this 16-article series. Before writing a word Cohn spent 15 months assembling background material, notes and articles on all phases of science, engineering, medicine, agriculture, transportation, city planning, electronics and oceanography. He criss-crossed the United States, seeking out and interviewing researchers at California Institute of Technology and M.I.T., rainmakers in the High Sierras, scientists-for-hire who are turning automation into a household word, doctors who are inventing cures for diseases we haven't even got yet.

Cohn's remarkable synthesis of the information gained during this two-year assignment to the world of the future may well stand as the most comprehensive peek-at-tomorrow ever taken by a working newsman. To date, "1999" has been syndicated in 28 newspapers across the United States and Canada.

The editorial enterprise, accuracy of detail and completeness of research which Victor Cohn brought to "1999" is a cover-to-cover characteristic of the Minneapolis Star and Tribune—newspapers whose constant efforts to give *more* of the news have earned them the respect, admiration and trust of the largest reader audience in the 3⅓ state area called the Upper Midwest.

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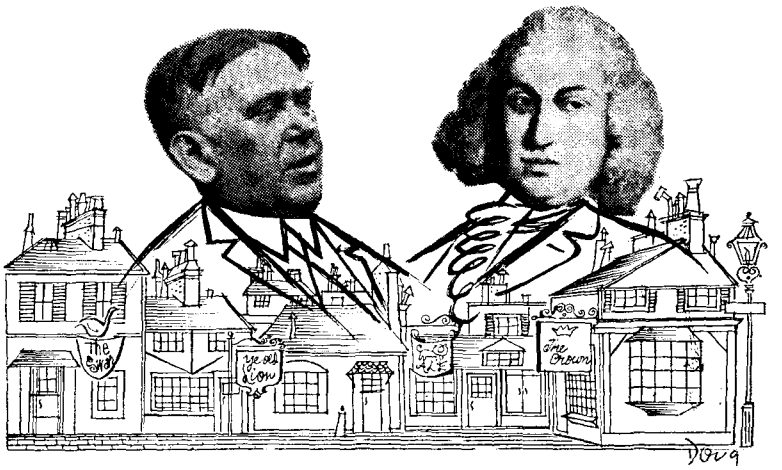
The Saturday Review

SEPTEMBER 10, 1955

H. L. MENCKEN AT SEVENTY-FIVE

America's Sam Johnson



On September 12, in Baltimore, Henry Louis Mencken, lexicographer, perhaps the most influential and certainly the most provocative American critic of the age of Harding and Coolidge, will be celebrating his seventy-fifth birthday. He has not had much to say for publication since a serious illness seven years ago, but the intervening time has made it clear that his place in the development of American ideas and letters is to be an enduring one. To salute this great man and force on his anniversary SR *this week publishes two articles about him: the essay below comparing him with Samuel Johnson, the eighteenth-century British critic and lexicographer, written by William Manchester, novelist and author of a biography of Mencken called "Disturber of the Peace"; and an appreciation by Alistair Cooke, American correspondent of* The Manchester Guardian, *which begins on page 13.*

By WILLIAM MANCHESTER

CONSIDER the obvious parallels. They were both periodical essayists, both popular critics. Each became famous as a literary dictator, though neither was in fact any such thing. Both were lexicographers who worked under immense handicaps, yet neither had more than scant regard for his lexicography. Each professed Toryism loudly yet preferred the residue of humanity to its froth. Neither could stomach the professional politician, yet Johnson had his Burke and Mencken his Senator Reed, and both produced in their later years political pamphlets their admirers would like to forget.

They were boyhood prodigies who all their years looked back upon their schooldays as the happiest of their lives. Each was the eldest son of a tradesman who impressed him into the family business against his will. Each received a limited formal education, educated himself irregularly, and held small regard for the lecture platform thereafter. Both plunged into journalism, serving apprenticeships to fame under the iron mastership of adversity, and both in their early years vainly tried to supplement regular income by translating works from foreign tongues.

Each believed mankind happier in a state of subordination and endeavored to put all men who entered his company in that situation. Each was a lover of good food and drink, of earnest conversation with men and playful banter with women, and neither would talk unless he could dominate the conversation. Neither believed there were two sides to any question; both served as parlor conservatives in periods when the left was advancing; each could be outrageously sophistic; each could be terribly wrong. Both admired the city extravagantly and despised the provinces, and each selected as the target of his abuse a land he considered the height of provincialism. For Johnson it was Scotland; for Mencken, the plains of "sunbaked, unwashed Kansas." Johnson, an Englishman, hated America; Mencken, an American, hated England. They were gargantuans both, wits both, neurotics both—the one, a feeler of lamp posts; the other, an inveterate scrubber of hands who was obliged to install a wash basin by his desk that he might work without frequent trips to the bathroom. Each was hard on incompetence, stern with cant, brutal with dishonesty.

They were famous stylists, and their styles were often parodied, and the parodies were universally unsuccessful. Everyone supposed them to be terrible men, and they were really quite gentle. They were vigorous advocates of the double standard, yet each was a docile and faithful husband, Johnson to a wife old enough to be his mother, Mencken to a bride young enough to be his child. Johnson publicly professed faith in God and privately suffered pangs of doubt; Mencken publicly professed doubt and

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privately suffered pangs of faith. It was the same thing. Johnson was stricken by an apoplectic attack on his speech center in his seventy-fourth year. Mencken was stricken by an apoplectic attack on his speech center in his sixty-ninth. Johnson outlived his friends, but not his biographers. So, it seems, will Mencken.

Mencken lived in a busier era than Johnson did, and so he led a far more active life; his was a more ruthless time than Johnson's, and so he was far less ready to make advances after a quarrel than was the doctor. Johnson's menagerie in Fleet Street finds no parallel in Mencken's well-ordered household, and Mencken's solicitous care of his mother, his capitulation to her most trivial wish, contrasts sharply with Johnson's neglect of his. Mencken regarded Johnson's scrapings before George III as the act of a toady, and his own spectacular performance on Boston Common would have outraged Johnson, who never could have approved of a man who would present himself for arrest in defiance of any authority, however culpable.

But we do not look for mutual approval from these extraordinary men. We know that Mencken despised Johnson, and with the record before us we can only assume that Johnson would have equaled his contempt. That is precisely what we must expect, for likes, or nearly likes, have always repelled one another, and if these two are as well matched as one side of a face is to the other, then they are dissimilar as only two sides of a face can be. Indeed, that is what they are: the right and left sides of the face of philology: Johnson right, Mencken left.

FROM across a century and a half they call out to one another with blistering abuse, colossi at war over usage, containing between them thousands of writers who fell, aware or unaware, under one of the two polar influences: of Buckle and Browning, who read through Johnson's "Dictionary" to improve their vocabularies; of young twentieth-century authors, receiving copies of the "American Language" as the inevitable gift upon embarking on their careers. One looks in vain for a man of comparable statue in the 164 years which elapsed between the publication of Johnson's great work and the first edition of Mencken's. There is only the lurking figure of Noah Webster, a well-meaning drudge who wistfully hung around the gates of the prison in which Johnson had locked the public speech and was chased away by the guards whenever he made a suspicious gesture.

It was Mencken who tamped nitroglycerin under the walls and blew them down, Mencken who undid Johnson. And to recognize the greatness of the crime, and its necessity, i not to detract from the architecture o the jail of the genius of the architect

When Johnson sat down in Goug Square with his six amanuenses—fiv of them Scotsmen—lexicography wa still an art but poorly understood. Be fore him there had been Robert Caw drey's "Table Alphabetical of Har Words," which defined only jawbreak ers, and Nathaniel Bailey's "Universa Etymological English Dictionary," which gave only word origins. Th language was ripe for jelling, for a authoritative work to which writers schoolmasters, and plain men coul turn in moments of philological dis tress. This was the task the book sellers' committee set before Johnso in the late spring of 1746, and that h went after it sensibly few will deny The only intelligent way to determin usage was to investigate the practice of the best authors, and so Johnso went through the works of the mas ters, marking passages designed t point up the definitions he assigne words.

The merit of this plan was obviou 200 years ago; so are its flaws today It confined authority to literary mo guls, and unto Johnson, the final arbi ter when the moguls returned a spli decision, it delivered singular power In the hands of a dispassionate judg this power would have been danger ous, and Johnson is one of the leas dispassionate men in literary history As the last of that formidable line o neo-classicists which began with Dry den, he was enormously hospitable t the language of Caesar. It was Johnso who was responsible for the fina "our" in such words as "honour" an the final "k" in such as "publick"; Johnson who tried to throw "wobble," "bamboozle," "chaperon," "touchy," and "coax" out of the language; John son who referred to the "American dialect as "a tract [trace] of corrup tion to which every language widely diffused must always be exposed." His adoration of what the eighteenth cen tury considered classical reached its *cul-de-sac* in his amazing definition o "network"—"anything reticulated, or decussated, at equal distances, with interstices between the intersections."

Unhappily, this was just the sort of thing to appeal to the starchy school marms both Mencken and Johnson de plored; they supported it and the static language it meant enthusiastically, and do to this day. Down to 1919 they faced no effective challenge. Then Mencken, rising to meet a current need as Johnson had, and working, as Johnson wrote he had, "with little assistance of the learned, and without any patronage of the great . . . amidst

Song for September

By Miriam L. Wise

STORM that prevailed against the gold,
Breaking the summer utterly,
Sending her, lost, through the sodden fields
To weep beneath a willow tree,
To stand bereft among her flowers,
Helpless to gather them to her breast,
Helpless to rescue the drowning cicadas
From the storm's crest.

All day long I watched you coming,
Watched the stubborn unequal fight,
Clouds the color of spoiled plums walking
Heavily over the blue and white,
Watched the summer, smiling, pleading,
Growing uncertain of her charms,
Watched you strip her golden loved ones
From her warm arms.

And in the moment of her surrender
I knew my own love lost to me.
The north gale swept through the open windows
Slamming a door that has no key . . .
I stretched out my hands and my hands were taken,
But cold was the clasp as the wind was cold.
The lips I kissed were sealed with winter,
The story told.

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convenience and distraction, in sickess and sorrow," published the first lition of his "American Language."

WRITTEN with fingers numb from ıe cold during World War I, while the atrioteers denounced him for his erman ancestry and endless lines of ucks rolled by outside carrying the ıfluenza dead to cemeteries outside altimore, the "Language" met immeiate opposition from the pedants. Can English be saved?" asked an larmed *New York Sun*; Professor tuart P. Sherman attacked it as an ttempt to "split asunder the two great nglish-speaking peoples"; an entire onvention of the National Council of eachers of English was given over to enunciations of it. They were all in ain; the game was called; however rongly the schoolmarms might disapprove, the day of philological colialism was over. Henceforth the igidity Johnson had imposed on the anguage was dissolved, at least on nis side of the Atlantic; what Mencken called "the old libido for wordnaking" was again cultivated, as it ad not been since the days of the 'udors.

How did they do it, and why? Why vas it Johnson, not Pope? Why Mencken, and not Louise Pound? Simply because each man was a prime pecimen of that rare species, the artst who is also a leader. They were not iterary dictators, if by that term is neant arbiters who set standards no uthor can violate and survive. It is loubtful if such a man has ever preided in England or America. But they vere literary deans who had built olid reputations within the craft and ould improve upon the accepted beause they had mastered it. They recognized the need for that improvement because each was exceptionally well acquainted with the idiom of his own ime. It is the immediacy of their scholarship which is most striking, not ts range. Mencken rarely read an uthor who had written before 1850, nd Johnson is remembered as a lassicist only because classicism was hen the fashion; no reader of the 'Lives of the Poets" can doubt that it vas the literary history of England since the Restoration which held his hief interest, or that he admired the ancients because his great contempocaries did. Moreover, each was a powerful personality, a man of extraordinary virility, a monarch of life if not of literature to whom others deferred as naturally as a yeoman defers to a prince.

One draws the irresistible parallel of the two gourmets at table with their friends—Johnson in the Turk's Head,

(*Continued on page* 64)

—*H. George Aschaffenburg.*

"Mencken would be a newspaperman all his life and it was the title he liked best."

THE BALTIMORE FOX

An Appraisal by a British Journalist of a Writer with an Inimitable Style

By ALISTAIR COOKE, *American correspondent* of The Manchester Guardian. *This essay is drawn from the introduction to "The Vintage Mencken," gathered by Alistair Cooke, a collection of short selections from the writings of H. L. Mencken to be published September 12 by Alfred A. Knopf in a Vintage paperbound edition selling at 95¢.*

WHEN it seemed, seven years ago, that H. L. Mencken was on the point of death I wrote, in dutiful haste, an obituary that is happily still in galley proof in the home office of *The Manchester Guardian*. Since Mencken was born in 1880 what was intended as a memorial tribute has turned into a seventy-fifth birthday present.

For the newcomers to this prince of journalists a brief account of his life, from his birth into his prime, may be in order. Henry Louis Mencken was born on September 12, 1880, in Baltimore, Maryland. His family, which he was proud to discover was in the collateral line of one Luder Mencke, a learned lawyer who employed Johann Sebastian Bach as a choirmaster, left Germany in the turbulent exodus of 1848, and his grandfather settled in the German section of Baltimore as a cigar-maker. His son, August, in time started his own tobacco business, which did very well indeed and would have cushioned a more docile son through manhood, matrimony, and middle age. But young Henry, the first-born of three sons and a daughter, discovered "Huckleberry Finn" at the age of nine, an event he was later to describe as "the most stupendous of my whole life."

It was enough to turn him for a few absorbed years into a bookworm, until—in his late teens—he abandoned his heavy reading "in favor of life itself." The marvels of the ordinary life around him provoked in him a warm desire "to lay in all the worldly wisdom of a police lieutenant, a bartender, a shyster lawyer, and a midwife." Newspaper work appeared to him to offer this reward in the shortest order, and on the Monday morn-

(*Continued on page* 63)

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WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION

On this and the following nine pages SR *presents material that it hopes will prove useful to American educators and laymen as they participate in or simply follow the White House Conference on Education, scheduled to begin in Washington on November 28, as well as the numerous state conferences to be held preceding it. Statements on five of the chief topics to be discussed at Washington (listed in the left-hand column below) have been prepared especially for* SR *by the advisers to the subcommittee of the Conference; although authoritative, they should in no way be construed as official. In other parts of this issue,* SR*'s annual Accent on Education number, we present discussions of two other problems currently troubling educators which it does not seem likely—at the moment at least—will be talked about at Washington: the issue of Federal aid to education (page 23) and the problem the nation's colleges will soon have to meet in educating the large crop of warborn children (page 26).* SR *is grateful to John Haverstick for editorial coordination of the material in this section.* —*R. W. Jr.*

The Story Behind the Conference

By LEONARD BUDER, *education news writer,* New York Times; *president, Education Writers Association.*

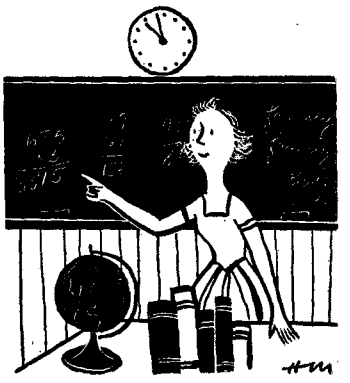
"THE most thorough, widespread, and concerted study that the American people have ever made of their educational problems"—the words are President Eisenhower's—will come to a head November 28 through December 1.

During those four days more than 2,000 persons from every state in the nation and five United States territories will meet in Washington, D. C., for the White House Conference on Education. This meeting will actually be the culmination of many previous conferences—every state and territory and scores of local communities will by that time have held their own "little White House Conferences."

The participants at the national conference—as will those at the preceding meetings—will focus their attention on six important questions that together encompass the breadth of elementary- and secondary-school education and, to a lesser extent, touch upon the scope of all education in this country. These questions are:

- What should our schools accomplish?
- In what way can we organize our school systems more efficiently and economically?
- What are our school building needs?
- How can we get enough good teachers—and keep them?
- How can we finance our schools—build and operate them?
- How can we obtain a continuing interest in education?

Out of all this will come a report to the President. It will be drawn up by a thirty-three-member committee appointed by the President and headed by Neil H. McElroy, a Cincinnati businessman who has been active in school affairs. In preparing its report the committee will rely upon its own studies—six subcommittees have been organized to study the various ques-



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tions—and upon the deliberations of the state and White House conferences.

"This report to the President," explained Mr. McElroy, "will include recommendations, insofar as they are possible, for the solution of some of our school problems and will probably suggest approaches or lines of thinking in connection with others. We don't expect to come up with the complete answers. The subject is too broad, the points of view too divergent to admit of easy answers or formulae. We do hope to point some directions, perhaps to lay down some suggested principles and perhaps even to have specific answers to some of the specific problems."

IF GOOD wishes and the best of intentions were the deciding factors there is no doubt that the forthcoming White House Conference would prove to be an unqualified success. Major citizen groups have endorsed the conference and are lending their support. The National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, which is greatly responsible for the increased lay interest in education that has developed in recent years, and the National School Boards Association have joined forces to encourage every community in the nation to hold its own local conference.

But at the same time the White House Conference has touched off considerable criticism. These criticisms come often from individuals and organizations actively connected with the project, a development which is not as strange or nefarious as it seems when the background and nature of the criticism is understood. Moreover, the criticisms are not usually expressed openly: it is almost as if the critics feel that in voicing their apprehensions they might weaken the conference, or perhaps lay themselves open to a share of the blame if the conference should fail to produce all that some expect of it.

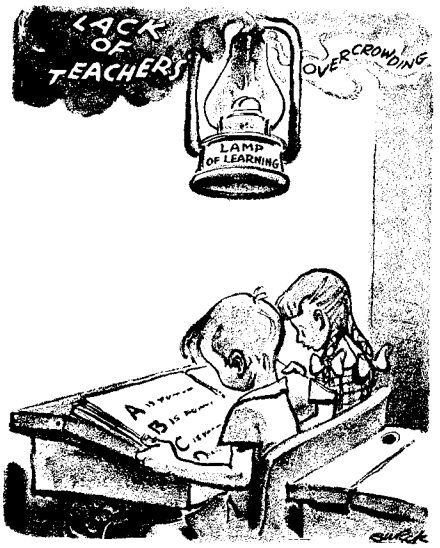
Many of the organizations which have thrown their full weight behind the White House Conference have said from the beginning that the conference was not necessary and that it would uncover nothing that was not already known. Some have claimed that the whole thing is nothing more than a "grandstand stunt" devised to enable the Federal Government to avoid meeting the highly important issue of Federal aid to education (see page 23) and to shift responsibility for school problems to the states and local communities. And some have gone so far as to charge that the conference and the meetings that will precede it are being "stacked" against education, and that those who will make the reports will express preconceived views.

Why should a program that is heralded as a means of solving the nation's educational ailments stir so much criticism, especially among those who are perhaps most concerned with meeting these problems? To begin with, the project was the creation of an Administration which at least as far as education is concerned has never been popular with a large segment of those in education. Many persons in this camp preferred Adlai E. Stevenson, the Democratic candidate for President during the 1952 election, and they have not been moved by President Eisenhower's pronouncements on education since he assumed office. The President's whole educational program, these critics say, has proved impractical and of the "too-little-and-too-late" variety and even, as one educator has put it, "nothing but a slick publicity job." The President's appointment of Mrs. Oveta Culp Hobby, who was not regarded in some circles as sympathetic to education, as the first Secretary of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare only fanned further resentment.

The idea of the White House Conference on Education is credited largely to the late Dr. Lee M. Thurston, who served briefly until his death as President Eisenhower's first Commissioner of Education. Following some spadework by Dr. Samuel M. Brownell, who was appointed to succeed Dr. Thurston, the President announced the plan in his State-of-the-Union message on January 7, 1954. In it he declared: "I hope . . . a conference on education will be held in each state, culminating in a national conference. From these conferences on education every level of government—

—*Scott Long in* The Minneapolis Tribune.

"Trouble Is on the Way."



—*Burck in the* Chicago Sun-Times.

"Century of Progress?"

from the Federal Government to each local school board—should gain the information with which to attack these serious [educational] problems."

The President's proposal received a mixed reception. Some shared the President's viewpoint; others had their doubts and questioned whether the conferences were necessary. Dr. William G. Carr, executive secretary of the 553,000-member National Education Association, told a Senate subcommittee: "I think I can speak for all segments of the teaching profession in saying that we shall do all we can to make these conferences a success." But he went on to assert: "The proposed conferences will not find, in my judgment, any more useful or more reliable facts than we now have at our disposal as a result of the studies approved by Congress or conducted by non-governmental agencies. Every difficulty in which our public schools now find themselves has been predicted for more than a decade, and its dimensions have been predicted accurately." Another educator put his own opinion more succinctly by asking, "What can 2,000 people decide in three days—especially under the supervision of a committee which has been 'stacked' for the National Association of Manufacturers and the U.S. Chamber of Commerce? There is an awful lot of riding to glory on education on the part of an awful lot of laymen. . . . It's all a façade to prevent real aid to the schools from Federal funds."

Supporters of the plan, on the other hand, said that the conferences were very much needed. Observing that education is a state function and that the Federal Government has no right to interfere, they stressed that the state conferences and regional meetings would give citizens everywhere

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the opportunity to examine school needs and perhaps come up with the solutions to problems that now exist. The national conference, they said, would give everyone a chance to see his problems in relation to those of others and to benefit from one another's experiences and views. Commissioner Brownell saw the conferences as a means of getting the states "to face up to what they want to do" and of getting "the most action the fastest." He observed that you cannot get more school buildings merely by passing a Congressional bill.

NOW, with the White House Conference imminent, other charges are being leveled at it. The charge is frequently heard that the Eisenhower-appointed committee for the Conference will come up with some preconceived views pretty much in line with what the Eisenhower Administration believes. This, of course, has been emphatically denied. According to Dr. Finis E. Engelman, vice chairman of the Presidential committee and Commissioner of Education for Connecticut, the President gave the group "a completely free hand to come up with its own findings and recommendations. The committee," he stressed at the annual meeting of the National Education Association this summer, "has no policy on any education issue, including the question of Federal aid to education."

Many criticisms have also been directed at the state conferences. As of August 1 twenty states and territories had held conferences, with nine planning follow-up meetings. Thirty-one had scheduled conferences and only two had not set the dates. In addition to the state conferences twenty-nine are holding regional, county, and community conferences—with about 4,000 such meetings having been held or scheduled. But the state meetings which have been held have "varied from those which were very good to those which were of little value," one responsible Washington observer has commented. "Some rushed to hold conferences without making adequate preparations; the result was that they accomplished very little. A few held one-day meetings, with time off for meals and entertainment, and expected to be able to give adequate attention to the problems of education in their state."

One of the finest conferences was held in Connecticut, a state that long has manifested an active interest in education. Writing in a spring issue of *The Nation's Schools* magazine Commissioner Engelman said: "Connecticut's conference on education far exceeded in value any state conference ever held in Connecticut—and we have had some that were excellent. . . . Participants seemed to catch the spirit of being involved in a national movement, and the horizons of their thinking widened because of it. Members of the legislature, in session this year, have felt the impact of the conference. Similar results can be seen in many local school districts. We have had state citizens conferences on education for a number of years, but follow-up evaluations of the state conference and the subsequent planning for regional and local conferences are steps that go beyond the results of previous years."

Tied to the charges against the state conferences is the charge that even the state conference committees and delegations are being "stacked." Miss Jennie L. Davis, chairman of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education of the National Education Association, warned last year that "there may be efforts in some states to prevent educational leaders from direct participation in the conferences." And another organization in the field subsequently advised its members: "Don't be dismayed if attempts to capture the state conference are made by unfriendly state officials or other special interests." Only last month Miss Selma Borchardt, Washington representative of the American Federation of Teachers, A. F. of L., told the group's annual convention that "it looks very much as though the conference is going to be stacked. As things stand now," she asserted, "and many of the delegations have already been named, it is obvious that classroom teachers and labor leaders will not be plentiful."

If there are efforts aimed at stacking they are clearly in violation of the law which established the conference, and which declared that the participation should be "broadly representative of educators and other interested citizens from all parts of the nation." Moreover, the Presidential Committee has advised the states—which will supply 1,400 delegates to the national conference—that representation "should be as diversified as possible in terms of racial, religious, political, economic, and social backgrounds."

SO, HOW much of the criticisms being aimed at the White House and state conferences are valid? It is pretty well impossible to answer this question at the present time. The criticisms—as do the rebuttals—come in most cases from responsible persons, even though many do represent special interests which might color their views.

It is significant in appraising the source of the criticism that even those who are sometimes most critical feel hopeful that some good will come out of the conferences. The executive officer of one prominent association that is working actively in behalf of the program, in making known his personal reservations, emphasized: "There is great value in the conferences in the mere fact that they will bring together thousands of Americans from every walk of life to discuss the needs of the schools. It will create a great deal of public interest in education which would not otherwise exist." But the final reckoning on the White House Conference will have to be made after the results are known. Much can still be done in the next eleven weeks. In the meantime educators—as well as all citizens—will be waiting, watching, and hoping. Even those who are most critical would like nothing better than to be proved wrong.

To an Insect Entombed in a Tome

By Sjanna Solum

WHAT thirst for knowledge brought you here?
Within your hieroglyphic bier
you lay entombed upon a page.
The weight of learning, heavy, sage,
compresses to a punctuation
you who were free, filled with elation.
Your life-span lasting scarce a night,
O foolish speck, what erudite
demand, what appetite, allure,
directed you to literature?
How could a creature so minute
expect to sip from this sweet fruit
of print? Whatever cause, the price
of your unwitting sacrifice
of life, though but a tiny spark,
on literature has made its mark!

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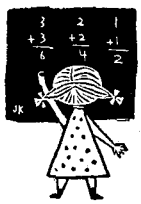

Goals for Our Schools

By FRANCIS KEPPEL, *dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, and* SLOAN WILSON, *assistant director of the White House Conference on Education.*

THE ADVISORS of the White House Conference who are concerned with the subject of what our schools should accomplish fully realize that they are confronting the invisible issue which lies at the heart of most controversies about public education today. Fundamentally the question facing the schools and the public is a simple one: Should the schools attempt to teach only the skills of the mind, or should they be held responsible for health programs, vocational training, recreation, and a whole host of activities which are demanded of most modern school systems?

Back three hundred years ago the country's earliest schools taught children chiefly to read and to cipher. But gradually—and with increasing momentum during the past twenty-five years—our schools have become institutions which help to encourage almost every human characteristic deemed worthwhile by the community. How far should our schools go from one extreme to the other? This is a question which has been endlessly debated ever since the time of Aristotle, who said: "All people do not agree in those things they would have a child taught, both with respect to improvement in virtue and a happy life; nor is it clear whether the object of it should be to improve the reason or rectify the morals. From the present mode of education we cannot determine with certainty to which men incline, whether to instruct a child in what will be useful to him in life, or what leads to virtue, or what is excellent; for all these things have their separate defenders."

Taken part by part the fundamental question of what the scope of our modern schools should be sounds familiar. Should the schools teach children to drive automobiles? Should there be courses in typewriting? How many of the thousands of trades in the United States should a school attempt to teach? Should the schools attempt to teach moral and spiritual values? Should there be programs designed to encourage good citizenship? Should the schools emphasize the Three R's more? Are there too many "frills" in modern education? All these questions of course go back to the original problem of defining the job of the public schools in the first place.

American schools are still trying to do everything they did fifty or a hundred years ago, but in addition they have acquired an almost limitless list of other duties. A modern public-school system in a fair-sized city often offers a catalogue of courses and activities a half-inch thick. Such a school system generally includes in its list a liberal arts program which has changed little over the years, and courses in the sciences which if the teachers are on their toes have to change almost every month. On top of the academic program, and under it, and on all sides of it are courses in the operation of machine tools, in cooking, in child guidance, and in almost every kind of knowledge that one can imagine to be useful to anyone. Apparently nothing escapes planners of school programs. Courses in international relations, the avoidance of alcoholism, and the art of happy family living vie with aviation mechanics and salesmanship.

IT is tempting to be satirical about the growth of school offerings until one remembers that almost every subject in a school catalogue is there as a result of a specific public demand. Professional educators have often been accused of an excess of ambition in expanding the scope of education, but the records of most school-boards will back up the contention that it is the public which has forced the adoption of most new activities. It is easy to argue in favor of a "balanced school program," but it is difficult to say that it is not necessary to

Education Has Many Purposes

ASK A GROUP of people what are the proper goals of education and you will come up with almost as many goals as people you query. Recently during a citizens' meeting on education in Stamford, Connecticut, a blackboard was filled with the goals those present considered important. Here, as listed in "The Connecticut Report," a book about the Connecticut Fact-Finding Commission on Education by Fred M. Hechinger, to be published by Macmillan, are some of the educational goals which the Stamford citizens listed on their blackboard:

- To prepare young people for a career.
- To teach a man how to think.
- To make it possible for people to get along with one another.
- To enable a person to look up important information when he needs it.
- To develop good taste in the things a person does outside his job.
- To develop the kind of interests and enthusiasm that will enable a person to put his leisure time to good use.
- To teach a person how to use the English language proficiently.
- To teach a man how to listen.
- To enable people to know how to run a home intelligently.
- To teach a man how to keep up with the news, how to read a newspaper or a magazine, how to appraise the news, and how to tell which columnists or commentators are reliable.
- To prepare young people for travel.
- To be a success.
- To acquaint a man with ways in which people climb the ladder of success.
- To prepare young people for bringing up children of their own and for assuming family responsibility.
- To develop spiritual and moral values.
- To know something about human experience and the course of history.
- To be able to make moral judgments.
- To give a child a strong mind and body.
- To develop to the fullest whatever possibilities or potentialities a human being may have.

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teach youngsters something about driving automobiles. The enormous variety of subjects offered by a modern school system makes sense when one relates it to the enormous variety of the student body in an age when almost literally *all* children go to high school. The problem of establishing priorities both for the student's time and the taxpayer's money becomes staggering in the complex school systems of today. Almost as great a problem is that of guidance—the process of helping a student to choose a correct diet from the great educational cafeterias which are springing up.

To a rather dangerous degree arguments about education sometimes degenerate into a caricature of the ancient battle between the "liberals" and the "conservatives," with the "liberals" advocating that the schools be given more and more money to do everything while the "conservatives" argue that education is a fine thing but all you need is a good teacher on one end of a log and an apt pupil on the other.

IT would of course be much easier to answer questions concerning the purpose of the schools if, like the caricatures, these questions involved all-or-nothing answers, but almost always one can answer only in terms of degree. Should the schools concern themselves with moral and spiritual values? Certainly one cannot say No —every individual and every institution must concern itself with moral and spiritual values. But if one says Yes some people envisage schools which attempt to become churches. Surely the churches and the families of the students have the primary responsibility for encouraging moral and spiritual values and surely the schools should help. But to what degree should they help? What emphasis should be placed on moral and spiritual values? How can the schools emphasize the importance of religion without getting involved in sectarian controversies?

In addressing themselves to basic questions of this kind the members of the subcommittee on school goals obviously are not attempting to provide definitive answers which every community in the nation is supposed to fall upon with relief. They are instead trying to clarify the issues and to delineate certain broad areas of agreement which they hope can serve as bases for constructive action. Only in this way can the other problems to be discussed at the White House Conference be solved. For how can the questions of our school-building needs and of school finance be answered until there is agreement on what the people want the schools to do?

Efficiency and Economy

By HOWARD DAWSON, *director of Rural Education Service, National Education Association.*

IN the day of the automobile we are still perpetuating in our country too many school systems which are reminiscent of oxcart days. In almost every state there are a great many schoolchildren who are getting an inferior education for their parents' tax dollars, and this skimpy educational diet for millions of American boys and girls is not only the result of our trying to buy education for them at cut-rate prices but it is also the result of uneconomical and outmoded organization. Therefore one topic of discussion at the coming White House Conference on Education will be concerned with the problem of "In What Ways Can We Organize Our School Systems More Efficiently and More Economically?"

There are some ideals of efficiency and economy in our schools which have been gathered together by means of hundreds of research studies on this problem. Here is a brief summary of these ideals:

In our high schools the best proportion of teachers to pupils has been found to be twelve full-time teachers to every 300 pupils. There is evidence that gains in both economy and efficiency have been made as such a pupil enrollment reaches 700 pupils, but there is little or no evidence that anything is gained by having an enrollment of over 1,000 pupils in any high school.

In elementary schools a good proportion is 175 pupils to seven teachers for a six-grade elementary school provided there is at least one teacher for every one of the six grades. Improvements in economy and efficiency can be obtained as long as the school reaches no greater a size than 300 pupils and twelve teachers.

In an entire school district there should be at least 1,200 pupils and forty teachers in order for its schools to operate efficiently and economically. Gains in economy and efficiency can be expected up to the point at which 10,000 pupils are included in the same school district under the same administrative unit, but any greater growth in the numbers of teachers and pupils generally results in a loss of efficiency and economy.

Such standards as these are likely to frighten many people. These people say that such standards are unattainable in areas where the population is sparse and scattered. But it is exactly the problem of attaining such standards which should be discussed at the White House Conference, for it can be said categorically that many of the problems of public education cannot be solved unless individual schools and school districts are properly organized. For unless school districts are properly organized the whole problem of financing education cannot be solved. Neither can the problem of the current teacher shortage or the problem of how many school buildings are needed throughout the country.

Here are some examples of the basic troubles that are inherent in school districts which are too small:

Small schools cost the parents of pupils more than they should. For example, in one Midwestern state the cost-per-pupil in small elementary schools is $319 as compared with the $178 cost-per-pupil in the same state's metropolitan elementary schools; and in the same state the cost-per-pupil in high schools having less than thirty pupils is $805 as compared with the $264 cost-per-pupil for high schools in the same state's first-class cities.

Small schools offer too narrow a curriculum to their pupils. For example, a recent study in Oklahoma re-

FRASER YOUNG'S LITERARY CRYPT NO. 637

A cryptogram is writing in cipher. Every letter is part of a code that remains constant throughout the puzzle. Answer No. 637 will be found in the next issue.

ABCDEFGHF KCLFM PQX

DSMGCL ESBHFOM.

RETOFG XFBBZMCB.

Answer to Literary Crypt No. 636

Many a treasure besides Ali Baba's is unlocked with a verbal key.

—HENRY VAN DYKE.

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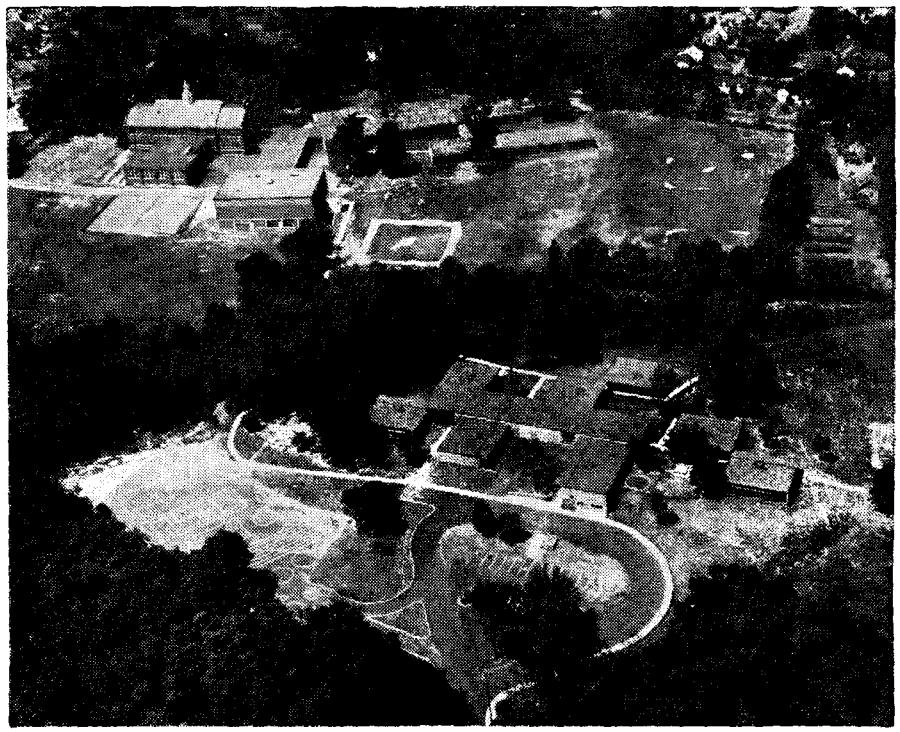
vealed that 99 per cent of the school districts having less than 300 pupils do not offer Latin courses, that 96 per cent do not offer Spanish courses, that 95 per cent do not offer physics, that 90 per cent do not offer chemistry, and that 39 per cent do not offer any courses in agriculture. In the state's larger schools these percentages are not nearly so ominous.

Small schools have far greater difficulty in obtaining and retaining good teachers than do large school districts. A recent survey of 880 school districts having fewer than 300 pupils shows that 57 per cent of the teachers in these districts are not college graduates—a percentage which is about three times as high as that of city school systems.

SMALL school districts are wasting manpower in this day of teacher shortages when such a waste cannot be afforded. For example, I recently studied a school district in a Midwestern county where a reasonable consolidation of the schools in that district would have saved eighteen elementary teachers and twenty-nine high-school teachers and would at the same time have resulted in a much better instructional program.

Clearly one solution to these problems which are encountered by the nation's small school systems would be the consolidation of schools. Recently in Lyon County, Kansas, for one remarkable example, four small high schools consolidated with the result that the cost-per-pupil was reduced from $800 to $350 and also with the result that a much broader curriculum could be offered to these pupils.

The sole purpose of a school district is to make available to its pupils in an economic and efficient manner an adequate and comprehensive program of instruction, and today this program of instruction includes not only the teaching of the Three R's but also an extensive list of subjects and activities which range from health and hygiene to such specialized services as guidance and counseling, psychological and psychiatric services, special services and instruction for handicapped children, specialized vocational education for youth, and adult education. Most of these specialized services must of necessity be furnished by an administrative unit rather than by individual schools. How to organize these administrations, how to organize the state administrations above them, and what part should be played in educational affairs by the U. S. Office of Education—all of these are vital questions which should be discussed by the American people at the White House Conference.



—*Ketchum, Gina & Sharp.*

Hollow Tree School at Darien, Conn.—"What [do] the people want the school to do?"

The School Buildings We Need

By WILLIAM RAY FLESHER, *professor of education, Ohio State University.*

THE "log" on the two ends of which sat Mark Hopkins and James A. Garfield may indeed be a dramatic symbol of a school building. It is doubtful, however, whether the taxpayer would today support such a teacher-pupil ratio or whether the teachers and pupils of northern climates would crave this type of building in December and January. That there is currently a nationwide shortage of classrooms and other spaces few educators seem to debate. Though one out of every six American youngsters attends elementary school in a building which has been judged a fire hazard, though 91 per cent of these schools have no gymnasium or school library facilities, and though the need for additional school buildings seems to exist in all states, it apparently exists in varying degrees of urgency in the several states. Those states experiencing rapid increases in total population and accompanying increases in school population are usually the hardest hit. A recent survey reveals that of forty-one state departments of education only ten believe they are really successfully meeting their school building needs. Twelve of the states say that they are "holding their own," while nineteen report that the need is outstripping their efforts to meet it.

The causes for the building need are as obvious as the need itself. They are: the lack of building funds during the Depression, the wartime restrictions on building materials, and the overtime efforts of the stork, which have enormously increased the numbers of schoolchildren, and the tremendous migrations of families to the suburbs, where often school building facilities are inadequate.

To meet this need intelligently involves the consideration of a number of topics. Here are seven of these topics, each put into question form as a kind of preview of what should be discussed at the White House Conference in November on the question of "What are our school building needs?" There is, as you will see, more than one point of view to be considered if one tries adequately to answer each of these questions:

How should the local community determine its school-building needs? There are those who hold that the job of determining building needs is solely the responsibility of the board of edu-

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cation and the school administrator. Others would include the teaching staffs. Still others, sensing more keenly the citizens' responsibility for schools, propose that the study be done by a school-community team—a kind of community self-study. Another pattern of study with many adherents and a rather long historical background is the study by an "outside" survey team composed of persons experienced in the techniques of this kind of study. Such a method supposedly brings to the problem a more objective attitude. A third method is in reality some variant of a combination of the self-study emphasis and the outside-survey approach. The relative efforts of the local groups and the outside consultants will vary in different situations.

There is undoubtedly no one "best" way of studying this problem in all localities. Communities, however, should be aware of the alternatives and analyze their own local conditions as factors affecting the choice of method.

Who should plan the school building? The quick answer of many is "The architect, of course." Some believe, however, that there is *more* to planning a school building than developing a set of architectural blueprints and a list of "specifications," but what additional personnel and activities are included in this "more" is not a settled question in the minds of either architects or educators. Some school-building architects may not wish to be bothered by educators; others see the value of such assistance. Some school-building planners say that, while citizens should participate in the determination of overall building needs in the form of a school-community survey, the planning of a given school building should be primarily the responsibility of the professional personnel and the architect. Such planning, they say, ensures a more functional building.

Should the building be planned for both school and community use? (If so, how?) In many communities there seems to be an increasing emphasis on the whole community's use of their

school buildings for adult affairs. This trend, however, is apparently not universal. If it is accepted that "the schools belong to the people" then certainly the buildings would be included, and community use of them would be quite logical. But there are some who apparently believe that school buildings ought to be used exclusively for school purposes. "The schools belong to the youth," these say, and there should be no usurpation of prerogatives by adults. If this point of view prevails then the answer to the question of how to plan for joint use is simplified: "You don't." The solution may be in provision for *some* adult use of the building. Decisions regarding the types of use are necessary so that school buildings will be properly designed.

What range of age and/or grade levels should be housed in a single building? Some educational leaders favor housing grades one through twelve in the same building in order, so they contend, that the instructional program may be continuous and well integrated. There are other people, however, who maintain that for sociological, psychological, and educational reasons children should be in groups of a reduced age- or grade-range. There is currently some advocacy of the neighborhood or cottage-type school—a building, often residential in design, that houses young children through the second and third grades. One advantage of this type of building is that the population in the neighborhood changes so that a school is no longer needed the building is easily converted to residential use. Opponents of this approach would say this type of grouping deprives young children of the opportunity to learn from their older associates.

What should be the desirable minimum and maximum enrollments of a single building? There are those who say that if a school center has a quite small enrollment the average costs for each pupil will be abnormally high and children will find too few companions in their own age groups to ensure a wholesome learning and living situation. At the other extreme schools with quite large groups of youth may become factorylike in their atmosphere so that the individual pupil (and even the individual teacher) may well become lost in the maze.

What room and space facilities should the school building contain in addition to regular classroom and service areas? The chief issues that are likely to arise center on what basic facilities should be included for the day-to-day use by the regular dayschool group. Some will contend that rooms for such subjects as art, driver education, music, and dramatics represent a waste of money. There are likely to be those who will question also the inclusion of instructional space such as gymnasiums, shops for industrial-vocational education, laboratories for home-economics instruction, and rooms for business education. This problem can encompass almost any kind of instructional or service activity, especially if this activity tends to depart significantly from time-honored, academically respectable, book-based subjects.

Does the usual six-hour day, the five-day week, and the thirty-six-week school year represent acceptable utilization of the school plant for school purposes? A school plant often represents a large outlay of money, especially since most school buildings are financed by the sale of bonds, and the interest charges must be added to the cost of construction. There are some groups who are raising timely questions about the limited utilization of most school buildings. One plan being proposed by various persons is that of operating the schools on a twelve-month (forty-eight-week) basis, with a four-week period of nonoperation in order that teachers may have a vacation period and that certain renovation and maintenance needs of the buildings may be cared for. The pupils would still attend school for the conventional nine-month period on some type of staggered plan, the net effect of which would be to increase building capacities 25 per cent. Opponents point out the administrative difficulties of such a plan and certain types of resistance that would come from parents, pupils, and teachers. Other groups question the six-hour (or less) use of buildings on a five-day-a-week basis. Why not, they say, make greater use of the buildings within the conventional nine-month period?

The Lark

By Witter Bynner

CREATION, new springing
From winter, from night,
Is a lark in me singing
High up, out of sight.

Love is a bubble
Which never shall burst—
But Eve was in trouble
For knowing it first.

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To Get and Keep Good Teachers

By RAY C. MAUL, *assistant director, Research Division, National Educational Association.*

PERHAPS the most widely advertised shortage in American education today is the shortage of good elementary-school teachers. In Bronxville, N. Y., ninth-grade pupils are being used as junior teachers to alleviate the shortage *and* to help stimulate their own interest in teaching—which, it is hoped, will alleviate future shortages when *they* grow up. In 1951 the Kansas Commission on Teacher Education put on a Teacher Reserve Mobilization Program which resulted in the reemployment of 400 qualified elementary teachers in order to help out that state's shortage. In the District of Columbia, George Washington University is offering special teacher-training courses for housewives who have liberal arts degrees and who might be persuaded thereby to help out in the teacher shortage. There has been a great deal of talk about raising the pay (and the prestige) of teachers, about giving to male teachers dependency allowances as if they were in military service in order to attract more of them to the classrooms, about reducing the number of children who are given a public education (and thereby reducing the number of teachers needed), and about calling upon teachers to teach more hours than they now do.

Just how short is the supply of teachers? There are now about 690,000 elementary-school teachers in service, and of these approximately 60,000 quit each year. Some of these die or retire. Mainly, however, they leave their profession to take better-paying jobs in other fields of employment. But in any event the annual retention or replacement of this number is the first problem which we must face. Total elementary-school enrollments also are expanding at the rate of almost one million children per year. Even with the consolidation of small classes and improved arrangements to utilize the professional talents of every qualified teacher at least another 25,000 elementary-school teachers must also be added to the total corps each year for the next several years. This total annual need for 85,000 is the minimum. There are also other serious shortages of teachers. A great number of classes are now overcrowded, and many children attend only half-day sessions. To relieve this situation there is a need for 30,000 elementary-school teachers. To give instruction in neglected subjects and to add needed educational services 10,000 more teachers are needed. And, finally, 40,000 persons with utterly inadequate qualifications should be replaced in the classroom: many schools have been forced to hire teachers with only emergency certificates to their credit in order to overcome the teacher shortages. Thus there is a need for 165,000 qualified elementary-school teachers right now to assure every child a fair educational opportunity.

In addition there are other sobering facts: High schools are at the threshold of a vast expansion. Already the shortage of teachers of science, mathematics, agriculture, and industrial arts is acute. The present corps of 375,000 teachers must be enlarged in the years just ahead. School officials seeking qualified teachers run head on into competitive offers from business, industry, and government for emerging college graduates—many of them paying higher starting salaries than teachers ever receive in their lives. The extent of the shortage of qualified high-school teachers right now, with all of the increases in enrollment yet to come, adds a complication to the chronic elementary-school shortage.

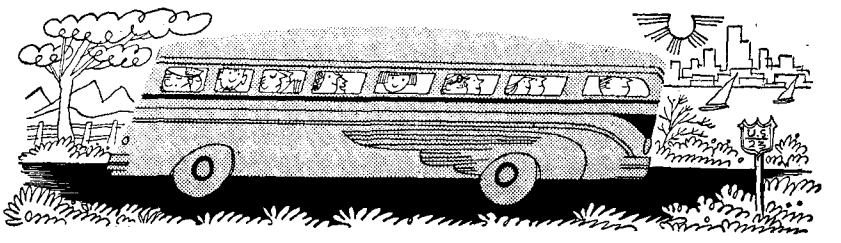
The supply of available qualified teachers to meet these needs is not easily measured because it comes from two sources. One source is the group of college graduates emerging annually, and for which we can account accurately in available reports. The other source consists of all college graduates eligible for teaching certificates but who are not now engaged in teaching and for whom we cannot account. Some of this group are former teachers. They may now be in military service, they may be employed in other occupations, they may be pursuing advanced studies, or they may be at work as homemakers. The number of this group who at any time may decide to seek teaching positions is unknown, but they are the first reserve after the supply of current college graduates is exhausted. A young woman recently graduated and recently married may find herself in a strange city because her husband's work brings her there. She may be interested in a teaching position there, but she is not at all available in any other locality. Or, a highly successful teacher may retire to bear children; then, when her youngest child attains school age she may want to resume teaching. A man returning from military service or a man who has found another occupation not up to his expectations may enter teaching some years after college graduation.

THE point to be recognized is that every one of these latter cases is dictated by the changing circumstances of an individual. This potential supply of qualified teachers is thus most unstable—it cannot be measured and most of the persons comprising this supply sharply limit their availability for purely personal reasons. A given city may enjoy a plentiful supply while many other school districts in the same state are tragically without available candidates. So in reality the current group of college graduates is the only measurable source of supply. Therefore, these six issues must be examined:

How to increase the number of capable youth who attend college. Fewer than half of the top 25 per cent of high-school graduates enter colleges. Some cannot afford it, some do not understand the later values to be derived, and some just do not want to go to college in the face of other, more immediate goals. This problem, therefore, is twofold: how to aid the needy and how to motivate the uninterested.

Should more aid be given to the individual or should the concept of free public higher education be extended? Should aid go to those intending to enter a designated occupation? How can the attractions of immediate employment after high-school graduation be overcome?

How to increase the number of college students who prepare to teach.



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Here the diverse nature of the teacher-education programs offered by some twelve hundred institutions is a factor to be examined. Are they realistic, functional, and devoid of needless duplications? Instructors in engineering schools are frequently practising engineers; doctors and lawyers teach in medical and law schools. How close are college instructors to the work their students will do when the latter become elementary and high-school teachers?

How to increase the number of prepared college graduates who actually become teachers. Recent studies show that almost one-third of the college graduates prepared to teach do not seek teaching positions as they finish their college work. Such a loss in law, pharmacy, engineering, or medicine, along with the other professions, would be unthinkable. How can this loss to teaching be reduced? Should special inducements be offered to qualified college graduates in the fields of greatest shortage, such as science just now?

How to increase the holding power of the teaching profession. Some 10 per cent of the total public-school teaching corps quits the classroom each year. Commonly known causes in addition to inadequate salary are: 1) unfavorable working conditions, including excessive loads; 2) lack of prestige; 3) lack of promotional opportunity; and 4) lack of freedom to exercise individual initiative. The presence or absence of these handicaps varies greatly among school districts. The major responsibility for eliminating them is thus a local one. The rate of turnover in the local teaching staff reflects not only the quality of educational leadership but also the attitude of a community toward its schools.

How to assure maximum professional use of each teacher's talents. Is any part of the teacher's time devoted to routine tasks that might be as well performed by a person with less preparation and general competence? Can we make more effective use of assistants not qualified to be teachers themselves? Can the qualified teacher's efforts be strengthened by greater use of visual and audio equipment? How can we make sure that all of the teacher's time is best used in truly educational activities?

How to provide adequate financial incentives to get and hold good teachers. Without question the really big issue in the teacher shortage is salary. Perhaps we have not yet faced up to these questions: Is the education of children, in truth, a "second level" job? Is it beyond the economic ability of the American people to finance a first-rate educational program for all children? It is a truism that we get about what we pay for. Many dedicated teachers serve far beyond the call of duty because of their love for the work and their gratification in contributing to the growth of others. But have we any right to expect the public-school program of America t be dependent upon such devotion Surely such thinking is not in keepin with our democratic ideals and th remedies for the inefficiencies whic have been caused by such thinkin should be of utmost concern to th participants in the White House Con ference.

Financing Our Schools

By EDGAR L. MORPHET, *professor of education, University of California at Berkeley.*

ONE of the major problems confronting Americans today is the problem of how much the nation's schools should cost and how these costs should be met. It will probably be one of the most controversial issues considered by the participants in the White House Conference. Today public schools are supported almost entirely by public tax funds—and taxes are already high. Can we afford the rapidly mounting costs for schools? Can we afford not to provide and finance an adequate program of education? These are the horns of the dilemma with which we seem to be confronted.

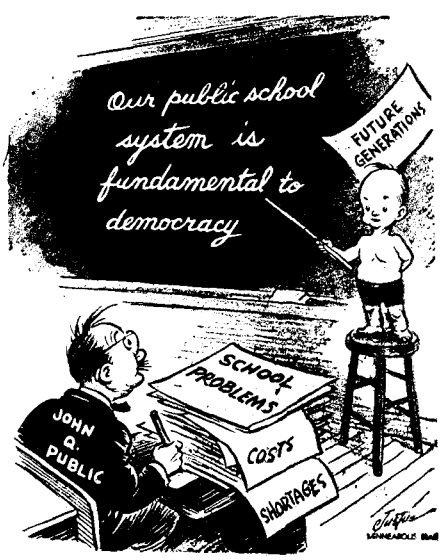
The evidence indicates that children in many communities in a large proportion of the states do not have adequate educational opportunities. Expenditures for schools in many of these areas are so limited that it is impossible to provide the services and facilities essential for a good school program.

One reason for this unhappy situation is that most state programs for financing schools have developed largely on a patchwork basis. The traditional procedure has been for states to provide some sort of fund which is distributed to all districts on the basis of a fixed amount per pupil or some such other unit. Such a fund may be of some assistance to all districts but, unfortunately, it may enable the more wealthy district to maintain a good program with little effort, while the least wealthy districts are still not in position to provide satisfactory schools without excessive effort.

When states first began to face the problem created by this diversification in the ability of local districts to support schools several of them created a small fund for equalization purposes in order to provide some relief for the poorest districts. Usually these funds have been inadequate and yet many states have continue this scheme with the result that th poorer districts are still not in position to provide a satisfactory pro gram.

In recent years the people in sev eral states have developed a pla designed to make it possible for goo schools to be provided throughou the state without excessive tax effor on the part of any district. Som of these plans are reasonably satis factory. Others, however, are un realistic: in some of these plans es sential services are omitted, in other the level of support assured is en tirely too low or the measure o local effort is based on assessed val ues which bear no relation to actua property values in the districts. A a result during the last quarter of a century the percentage of school support derived from property taxes ha decreased from more than 80 to abou 54 per cent. During the same perio the percentage of funds provided fro state sources has increased from a little less than 20 to approximately 42 per cent. There are today only

(*Continued on page* 52)



—*Justus in* The Minneapolis Star.

"Something to Keep in Mind."

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Federal Aid: The Unmentioned Issue

BECAUSE during his campaign for the Presidency, Dwight D. Eisenhower spoke out against extension of Federal aid to education, many citizens concerned with the nation's schools charged, as soon as plans for the White House Conference were announced, that it was to serve as a "facade" to provide a good excuse for holding up action on the question. The issue of Federal aid to education is one which is closely related to the conference topics discussed on these pages and in particular to the problem of how we can finance our school systems and how we can meet our need for school buildings; for without talk about Federal aid many educators feel that any discussion of these problems at the White House Conference becomes almost academic.

Actually, the Eisenhower Administration has already somewhat shifted its position on the issue. Early this year the President submitted to Congress a program for Federal assistance for school construction—largely in the form of loans and grants to the states and local communities. Even this has not mollified the critics of the conference and the educational policies of his Administration. They consider the school construction program inadequate and point out that it was proposed only after a bipartisan move toward Federal aid had developed in Congress.

Basic to the argument over Federal aid is the Administration's contention that "most of our communities and states can build the schools they need from revenues raised locally and within the states in the manner selected by their citizens." Federal assistance, the Administration feels, should be limited to those cases where communities cannot afford to build needed new schools.

Those who challenge this position—and they are numerous among professional educators—hold that it is the reason for some of the shortcomings of the state conferences which are being held in preparation for the White House Conference itself. In his annual report to the National Education Association its executive secretary, William G. Carr, recently declared that "there has been no clear request to the states for their opinion on the Federal role in education. There can be no valid consideration of national policy by the state delegates at the White House unless the state conferences formulate their views on what the national policy should be."

The situation has also prompted the magazine *The Nation's Schools* to question editorially whether "some groups [are] fostering a conspiracy of silence to prevent free and open discussion of Federal aid to education." The magazine has added, "We're not asking that the conference either endorse or condemn any plan of Federal aid. We merely are insisting that all sides of the question be presented. . . . If the subject of Federal aid continues to be sidestepped or misrepresented at the state conferences we shall assume that there has been a conspiracy of silence and that the omission was definite and intentional. If the general program for the national conference does not include ample and honest presentation of this entire question, with documented facts and all points of view supplied to the discussion groups, it will then be evident that the conspiracy is 'aided and abetted' by national pressure groups." In support of this statement, a prominent educator has commented recently, "It [Federal aid] is the only question that is really important at this time."

Those who favor Federal aid for education have advanced several arguments for their side. Among these is the all-too-apparent fact that there is a great need for new school buildings (see pages 19 and 22), the fact that the traditional methods of financing school construction seem to be inadequate, and the fact that, so they believe, the provision of educational facilities is in part at least a Federal responsibility since the whole national welfare depends upon the education of its children. Opponents of Federal aid, however, argue that according to the U. S. Constitution it is the job of the state and local governments to provide for education, that there is not sufficient need for Federal aid even for school construction, and that our present system of taxation could be revised to provide necessary funds from state and local sources. In addition to these arguments the opponents of Federal aid also point out that Federal aid might mean undesirable Federal control of the country's educational facilities. (To this those who favor Federal aid reply that the principle of Federal appropriations for schools has long been firmly established without unhappy consequences.)

THE Eisenhower Administration's version of Federal aid was embodied in a thirty-nine-page Senate bill last spring (S. 968). It proposes that the Federal Government should aid school construction by buying up to $750 million of local school bonds which are not salable elsewhere. It proposes to establish state school building agencies which would use a $6 billion fund created through equal contributions by the states and the Federal Government in order to build schoolhouses and to rent them to local school districts. It also provides for $200 million for Federal grants to states during a three-year period for the use of school districts unable to qualify for loans and it authorizes an appropriation of $20 million to be paid to the state education agencies during the next five years for the promotion of school construction.

The advocates of Federal aid declare that such a bill if passed would provide little actual financial aid, but would result in high administrative costs, excessive red tape, and long delays at a time when immediate aid is necessary. The bill, they feel, might be useful as a long-range plan but it would do little or no good within the next two or three years. At the Senate committee hearings on this bill Dr. Carr told the committee that any Federal aid bill should provide direct grants to all states, that it should allocate funds on an objective formula, that it should provide for administration of the funds at the Federal level by the U. S. Office of Education and at the state level by the already-established state education agencies. In this way, said Dr. Carr, local and state control of education would be safeguarded.

As things have turned out the House Committee on Education and Labor has come up with a more generous and more acceptable bill than has the Senate, but Congress adjourned last month before the bill could be moved out of the House Rules Committee and acted on.

It is apparent, therefore, that the White House Conference on Education should include the issue of Federal aid to education among its discussion topics, if for no other reason than to end the suspicions which have arisen about its seeming omission.—LEONARD BUDER.

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Beyond the Classroom

A VAST vacuum exists today beyond the college classroom. Filling that vacuum is the Number One job of American education.

Consider some case histories. A lawyer we know is not yet forty but he has already won a wide reputation for his brilliant handling of complicated cases involving corporation law. Once outside the field of law, however, he is like a loosely sewn baseball that falls apart at the seams at the first real contact with a baseball bat. If you ask him about the 99 9/10 per cent of the world outside his own particular fraction you will probably draw a blank. If you ask him about the basic differences in philosophy and ideology between the totalitarian state and the democratic state you will get no further than the bald though not bold statement that one is very bad and the other is pretty good.

Or consider the case of another friend. He has spent almost ten years in college and university work in an attempt to obtain an education; but now he complains that his education has virtually been a total failure. He knows how uranium can be converted into plutonium, and he can calculate with a high degree of accuracy the amount of heat released by the atom at the split second of fission; but what bothers him now is that in a closely related and even more important field—the political and social and historic implications of atomic energy—he feels intellectually bankrupt. He has a strong sense of responsibility for the planet-shattering gadget he has helped to perfect; but he says he has little background or training to equip him to comment on the very problems the gadget has created.

Or consider the doctor who readily admits that the truly modern practitioner must treat the whole man, and who knows all about the critical relationship between body and mind. Yet his training—intensive training—actually serves to limit both his own horizons and his usefulness. He is a man with a stethoscope, a microscope, a cardiograph machine, an X-ray machine, a sedimentation tube, and a centrifuge. And there his education ends. He has spent so much time in mastering his profession that he has lost sight of the world of which medicine is only a part. He is not equipped to understand or deal with the relationship between society and his patient.

Judged by ordinary standards all these men have had the advantage of "higher education." And yet, whether in terms of the broader needs of their professions or their own comprehension of the community-at-large, they are under-educated, under-trained, under-privileged. They have yet to pass the literacy test of the twentieth century.

The conclusion is inescapable that it is no longer accurate—nor has it been for some time—to apply the term "higher education" to American colleges. What seemed adequate only a short time ago for the purposes of top-level education now fulfills an intermediate function at best. The definition of what constitutes a truly educated person has expanded so prodigiously within a single generation that the average college graduate of 1955 may be no better equipped than the average high-school or even elementary-school graduate at the turn of the century. This fast-widening gap between formal education and the requirements of a world community is perhaps the main problem and challenge in education of our time.

EDUCATION fails unless the Three R's at one end of the school spectrum lead ultimately to the Four P's at the other—Preparation for Earning, Preparation for Living, Preparation for Understanding, Preparation for Participation in the problems involved in the making of a better world.

Adult education used to be synonymous with delayed formal education or naturalization courses or vocational training for grownups. But adult education today becomes just as important for college graduates and professional people as it is for the newcomer to the United States who is trying to learn the language. The language needed by the college graduate today is a complex one. First of all, he must keep himself up to date in his own field. (This becomes virtually a matter of the public safety in such fields as medicine, where basic changes in theory and practice have altered the main contours of the profession.) Secondly, he needs the kind of continuing education that will enable him to think and act intelligently in helping to keep up with the vast accretions of general knowledge. Finally, he needs to know how to look for and appraise information about the world of ideas and events. His country is going to have to make the biggest decisions in its history—both for the purpose of assuring its own survival and for helping to keep this planet in a single piece—and this may require some inspired prodding by the individual citizen.

Obviously, a back-to-school movement for the total adult population is neither likely nor possible. But a willingness to learn creates resources of its own. A book is still the finest portable university known to man. And, in a more collective sense, there is the rapidly growing prospect of a non-commercial national television network. No invention in the field of communications can come close to television in terms of its power or convenience. And almost no public issue before the American people today is more important than the question concerning the development of separate channels for educational purposes. Non-commercial educational TV network is now in its experimental stage. With public recognition and insistence it can become a living reality.

A vast adventure in education lies before the American people. The need is defined, the means are at hand, and the prospects are limitless. —N. C.

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LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

A REVIEWER NEEDED

JOHN STEINBECK hits the point exactly in describing literary critics as human beings, subject to all the faults and imperfections of their race, "Critics—From a Writer's Viewpoint" [*SR* Aug 27]. Yet his question of what is the precise function of the critic has a rather obvious answer: While the average, intelligent layman may not need the assistance of a book reviewer in grasping the main elements of a well-written work, he is generally incapable of sensing the book's place within the framework of history, literature, politics, or whatever field the author explores.

In answer to another of Steinbeck's questions, an excellent "critique of the critics" can be found in Malcolm Cowley's "The Literary Situation" (Viking).

BARRY IRA ORINGER.

New York, N.Y.

TAKEN FOR GRANTED

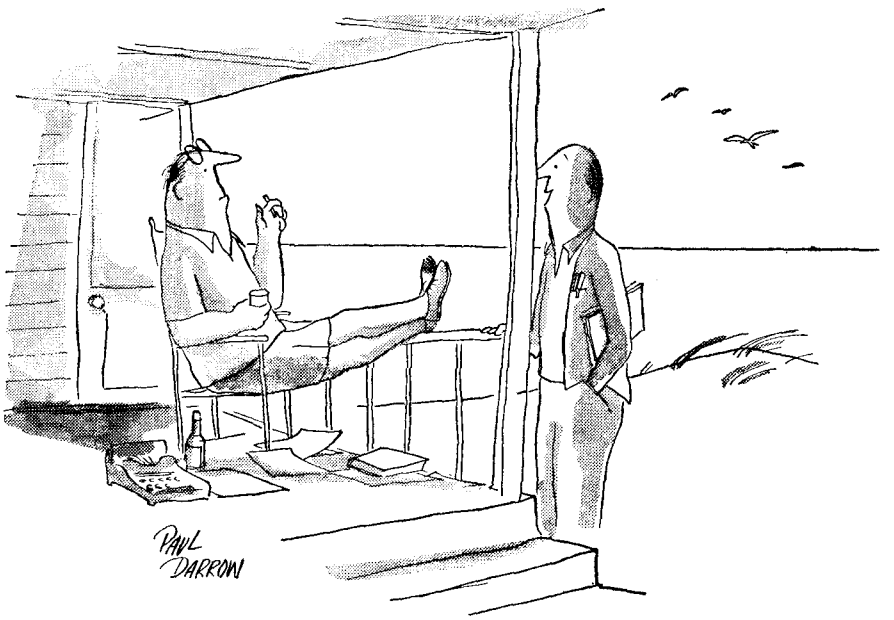
I HAVEN'T the faintest idea whether, as contended by Hollis Alpert, "Movies Are Better Than the Stage" [*SR* July 23], any more than I know whether ham and eggs are "better" than champagne. Certainly Henry Hewes's "search into why Alpert's theory is wrong" does little to enlighten me. ("The Wooden O vs. The Celluloid Eye" [*SR* Aug. 20]).

His unqualified assertion that "the theatre is always more genuinely moving and artistic than the films" will startle many of us who find Chaplin or Garbo considerably more "moving and artistic" than a large percentage of Broadway offerings and would have thought from Mr. Hewes's reviews that he was of a similar opinion. He states that when we go to the movies "our eyes become bored if there isn't constant movement" but fails to explain why eyes should get more bored watching a static film than watching a static stage scene. Actually it depends entirely upon what the ear (not to mention the heart) is hearing when the movement or plot or player is temporarily arrested. If it is Shavian talk like "Pygmalion" or Bronx talk like "Marty," Charles Laughton's rendition in "Ruggles of Red Gap" of Lincoln's Gettysburg Address or Marlon Brando delivering the funeral oration at Caesar's bier, a movie audience, like a legitimate theatre audience, hangs breathless on the words, completely unaware for the moment of any lack of movement. Hewes is under the impression that patrons cannot "sit enthralled for several minutes while an actor is speaking a soliloquy." Mr. Hewes also relies upon the ancient cliche that "only in live performances is to be found the exciting phenomenon of two-way participation." Possibly for first-night audiences there may be such a "ritual of mutual participation," but less fortunate theatre-goers surrounded by late arriving, over-wined and -dined burgers and their wives, visiting buyers eager for sex and sadism, and the old reliable contingent of coughers find little evidence in the Broadway theatre of "the actor and the theatregoer both in on the creative act." Or did Mr. Hewes ever attend a benefit performance with Sam and Sarah yoo-hooing to their friends in the audience? Their theatrical participation is more in the nature of a riot than a ritual.

"Any of us," writes Mr. Hewes, "who goes to the theatre regularly is thoroughly immune" to Mr. Alpert's thesis. Unfortunately, however, the chosen few who attend the theatre regularly grows steadily fewer and even among them there is an increasing number of apostates who think the screen did a more effective job than the stage with "The Country Girl," "Detective Story," and "The Time of the Cuckoo." "We do rather take the theatre's superiority for granted," admits Mr. Hewes. Maybe that's the root of the trouble, not only with his reply to Mr. Alpert but with something far more precious—the American stage.

ARTHUR L. MAYER.

New York, N.Y.



"Then it's settled—we'll split up the island and divide the local characters."

THREAT OF THE BOMB

IT HAS BEEN DISTRESSING to me to note that the only comments thus far published on Thomas H. Grainger's "The Emergency in Basic Science" [*SR* July 16] have been derogatory. It seemed to me that Grainger had stated his case well and that his article was much needed.

Harry Wiles's (LETTERS TO THE EDITOR, *SR* Aug. 20) would place the emergency in basic science low on the list of current emergencies and "summon our educational energies to the study of man" (presumably unscientifically). "Further progress in the basic science studies," he says, "would hardly render that device (the H-bomb) less threatening to survival." As a matter of fact, I know of no way *other than* basic research to reduce the threat of the H-bomb. Indeed, the very cause of our dilemma is the often-heard remark that the physical sciences—particularly applied physics—have so far outstripped the biological sciences. We understand man's behavior poorly because of insufficient knowledge of human and animal psychology, of neurophysiology, and ultimately of the physics and chemistry of life. (Skeptics of this view are invited to read R. W. Girard's "Biological Roots of Psychiatry," *Science*, Aug. 5, 1955.) The "fresh insights" in the study of man which Mr. Wiles calls for are unlikely to come from introspection and wishful thinking.

M. B. Ozonoff, in the same issue of *SR* (LETTERS), seems to feel that "research money is easy to get." I wish he would let some of us in on his little secret. Ozonoff believes the problem lies in the schools, "where a young person must have instilled into him a drive to learn for learning's sake alone." True enough, yet how many young persons with such a drive find themselves discouraged by the lack of prestige, low salaries, and lack of equipment and time for research, and allow themselves to be lured into applied science and industry, where they are assured of a far more comfortable living! Grainger is perfectly correct in stating that the major need is to teach the value of basic research to the average citizen, to legislators, and, I would add, even to college administrators!

HOWARD E. EVANS.

Ithaca, N.Y.

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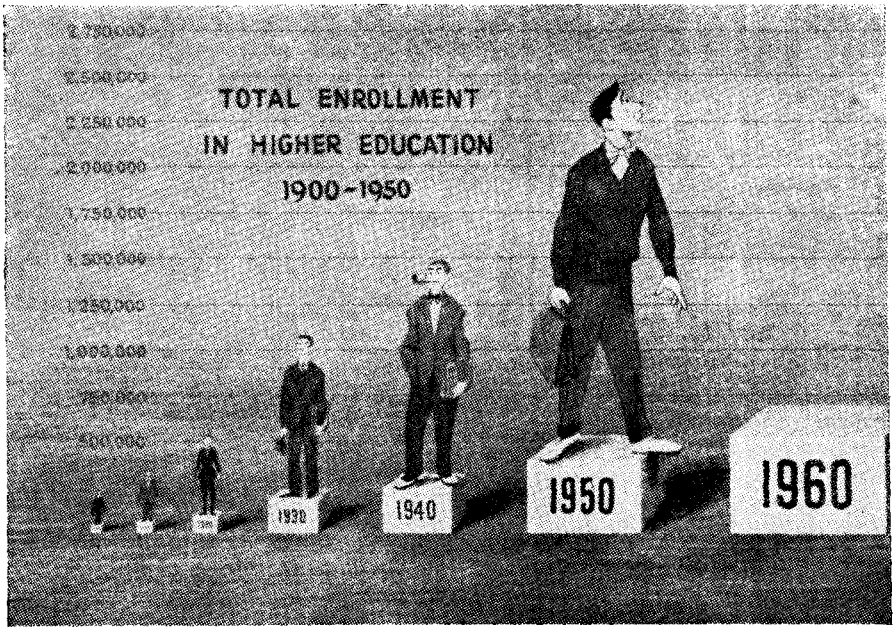

—*From "The Impending Tidal Wave of Students."*

"Voilà la problème— Now how do we cope with it?"

The Colleges Face a Rising Tide

By JERRY TALLMER

EVERYBODY knows about all the babies that have been born in this country since the start of World War II, and about the terrible time we have had, these past ten years, in trying to provide each of them with a decent elementary-school education. But what has not yet dawned on a lot of people, though the mathematics of it are perfectly obvious to anyone who will stop to do some counting on his fingers, is that any child who was born, say, in 1941—when there were two and one-half million births in the United States—must now be reaching the age of fourteen or fifteen. If he is not yet going to some sort of secondary school, public or private, he will no doubt be entering one this fall, and by the time just a few more Septembers roll around he will be ready, at least in age, to go to college. When the children of 1941 *et seq.* begin to reach the colleges our higher-educational system is going to have a situation on its hands like none that anyone ever saw before.

In the circles concerned they have for some time now been referring to these inexorably oncoming generations as "The Rising Tide." Where the phrase originated no one knows, but perhaps it was with the registrars and deans of admission, who were first and foremost to sound the alarum. Here is how these gentlemen have stated the case, in a pamphlet issued by their national professional association:

> The tidal wave of students is sweeping through our elementary schools, approaching the secondary schools, and will engulf our colleges and universities in a few short years. . . . The number of births in the United States has now reached an all-time peak [something over 4,500,000 annually]. The sheer impact of unprecedented numbers will force us to explore every resource and exert every effort to prepare for their coming. In these years of relative peace and quiet it is difficult to prepare ourselves for a time when we shall be confronted with at least twice our present number of students. The fact remains that they are already born. We know the time of their coming—we can count them now.

It is the kind of warning, and kind of problem, not lightly to be shrugged off, yet the officials of our Federal Government are giving it a great shrug. (Note the word "Federal," because a good many of the states, and a few in particular—Florida, California, Arkansas, Illinois, Indiana, Arizona, Michigan—have now begun to pitch into this thing.) The coming White House Conference on Education is not expected to touch on any except the most peripheral aspects of what is going to happen above the high-school level—those aspects, to be specific, which have to do with how many grade-school and high-school teachers the colleges are going to be able to turn out in the immediate future.

The college and university educators, however, are constantly examining all phases of the problem, thanks largely to the coordinating efforts of the Washington-based American Council on Education. The ACE's quarterly journal, *The Educational Record,* and many pamphlet studies are filled with information, material upon which I shall heavily draw a little later when I get to the second, or argumentative, half of this article. First, however, it might be best to go back to the registrars and their statistics, and to that part of the picture about which there can be very little argument whatsoever, except as to just how awesome and shattering the tide at its ultimate is really going to be. For, there is, you see, no way in advance of setting the absolute upper limits and this for reasons which I shall now grimly try to wrestle into understandable English:

Our ever-increasing college enrollments (1900—238,000; 1950—2.5 million) are the direct result of the multiplication of an expanding x by a much-more-rapidly-expanding y, where x=*all Americans of college age in any given year,* and y=*the percentage of college-age Americans who are actually attending college in that same year* (or are predictably going to attend, if it is a future year). While x has merely doubled, or thereabouts, since 1900, y has increased quite astronomically. In 1900 only 4 per cent of our college-age youth were actually going to college; in 1950 31 per cent were doing so, and by 1955 the proportion had reached something like 34 per cent. Where will it taper off? At 35 per cent? At 40? At 50, or even higher?

Nobody knows the answer or possibly can know, but everybody in education knows that for half a century the curve has been climbing steadily up, if you overlook a few dips for wars and depressions.

SO that's where you begin—with an x times a y. It is not, however, the place where you can end. The nature of x itself—the nature of the college-age bracket—has been changing, broadening, over the years, and ever more so in the years of the present postwar decade. Always in the past

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we have based our calculations on the assumption that the college-age bracket embraced those Americans who were between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one, inclusive. This reasoning is no longer valid. To put it in the words of Professor Ronald Freedman, a research analyst at the University of Michigan:

> Postponement of college training by service in the armed services and the continued growth of graduate education are likely to render the eighteen—twenty-one age range permanently obsolete as a proper base for computing college enrollment ratios. The age range eighteen—twenty-four was taken as a more rational base for . . . Michigan forecasts.

It is almost twice as many "inclusive" years from eighteen to twenty-four as from eighteen to twenty-one, whether or not that means the college-age bracket must now literally be multiplied by almost two. In any event it is now to be multiplied by *something;* and there are also a number of other jokers in the statistical deck, such as improving standards of health and under-reporting of births. And then there is this important consideration, once again in the words of Professor Freedman:

> It should be recognized that forecasts of college enrollments may become "self-fulfilling prophecies." If they are considered seriously by the educational and government leaders for whom they are made the actions taken by those leaders may provide the means by which enrollments may reach predicted levels. More broadly stated, enrollment forecasts can not be represented as indicating [hard-and-fast] laws of nature.

Which is to say that if you put up the money and hire the teachers and build the schools the kids who mightn't otherwise go will probably *now* go, thus making all your predictions come true—perhaps with a bang.

Taking one thing with another, then, what you come up with if you are a registrar, and have to settle for, is a bit of extrapolation somewhat along these lines:

A moment's study af the figures below will demonstrate that the projections zoom up according to a sort of calculus, and not arithmetically. The basic idea is that our college populations may quite possibly increase from today's two and one-half million to six million or more by 1970. And I have seen one prediction that dared to reach out to 1975—though that is only twenty short years from now—and to speak in terms of "nine million [students] clamoring for admission." That would be some three-and-a-half times as many as are presently jammed into our already inadequate college classrooms. Indeed, the cost of merely housing The Tide, much less educating it, will probably reach some six billion dollars. So says President Arthur S. Adams of the ACE. Total money needed for the whole works, he adds, "will probably be nearer $20 billion than $10 billion." (And just a few months ago the Hoover Commission recommended that the College Housing Loan Program be done away with on the ground that there is no longer any need for it!)

VOILÀ *la problème.* Now how do we cope with it? Here is where we come to a few slight disagreements. At the risk of oversimplification, I would say the cleavages are those of the small *vs.* large institution, of East *vs.* non-East, of private *vs.* public, and "elite" *vs.* "democratic." The great state universities, mostly west of the Mississippi, are ranged against the Amhersts and Wesleyans and Vassars and the like. The point at issue is of course the following: Who shall do the expanding? And why not everyone? And, if not all, then what are you going to do—set a ceiling, a lid, on the number of college educations available each year to the young people of America?

To this last question a surprising number of audacious souls are standing up and saying Yes. They are asking certain hard-to-answer questions of their own; for example, *What kind of college education?* and *College education for what?* Perhaps the most articulate of these is a professor of English at Harvard named Douglas Bush. His address to the delegates at the 1954 annual meeting of the ACE is, in my opinion, well worth reading in its entirety; it may be found in the January 1955 issue of the *Educational Record.* What he says is, of course, his own opinion, and is not to be taken as representing the point of view of Harvard University or—especially—the ACE:

"Educational history of the past fifty years seems to furnish a pretty good forecast of the bad effects of the deluge to be expected in the next fifteen. In school, college, and university the results of the huge increase in the student body suggest that the principle of education for all, however fine in theory, in practice leads ultimately to education for none. . . .

"There has been an appalling growth of illiteracy at all levels, even in the graduate school. . . .

"The great problem has been, and will be, first, the preservation of minority culture against the many and insidious pressures of mass civilization, and secondly, the extension of that minority culture through wider and wider areas. The rising flood of students is very much like the barbarian invasions of the early Middle Ages, and then the process of education took a thousand years. We hope for something less overwhelming, and for a less protracted cure, but the principle is the same. . . .

"I have no novel and dramatic remedy for the evils that have shown themselves so clearly already and will become more formidable still. But I might mention a few things of varying importance which do not seem utopian. . . .

"In the first place, I see no reason why the flood of students should be allowed to pour into college, why automatic graduation from high school should qualify anyone for admission. We ought to recognize, and make people in general recognize, that a desire for economic or social advantage, or for merely four years of idle diversion, is not enough. Under such pressure as is coming surely the state universities have the strength to set up bars and select their student body, instead of admitting all who choose to walk in the front door and then, with much trouble and expense, trying to get rid of some through the back door. Doubtless such a change would require a campaign of enlightenment and persuasion, but legislators have an alert ear for the cry of economy, and the public must be convinced that higher education, or what passes for that, is neither a birthright nor a necessary badge of responsibility, and that useful and happy lives can be led without a college degree or even

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ENROLLMENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION TO 1970. ASSUMING . . .

	(a) 31 per cent attendance of college-age group (as in 1950)	(b) 40 per cent attendance of college-age group	(c) 50 per cent attendance of college-age group
1955	2.5 million	2.6 million	2.6 million
1960	2.7 million	3.3 million	3.3 million
1965	3.4 million	4.4 million	4.7 million
1970	4.2 million	5.4 million	6.7 million

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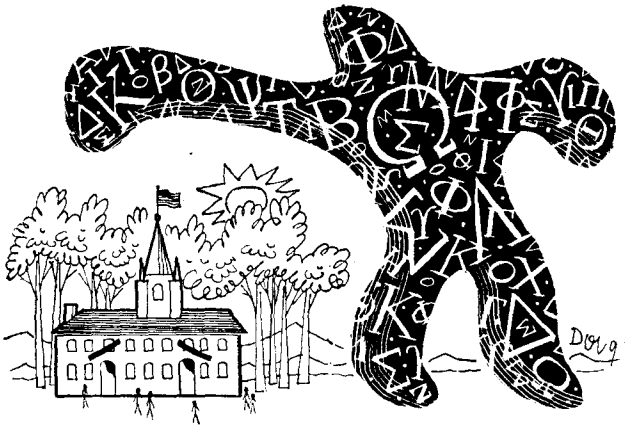
FRATERNITIES: EVIL FORCE ON THE CAMPUS



By WILLIAM S. CARLSON, *president of the State University of New York; formerly president of the University of Vermont and the University of Delaware.*

THE LETTER was one of dozens stacked on my desk.

"Have you no regard," read its bold, angry scrawl, "for the ideals of all American co-eds? You are destroying all they have tried to build up through the years. I demand you reconsider in regards to liquidating sororities in the State of New York."

I tried the next letter: "Only under a dictatorship would such an action be authorized."

After the third ("Only in a Communistic or other such dominated form of government could such action take place") I gave up any thought of replying personally to my correspondents. All were young college students, members of various sororities and fraternities in many states.

The letters—ungrammatical, illegible, abusive, and based upon false information and faulty reasoning—obviously were inspired by the professional executives who run this nation's seventy-odd college social fraternities and sororities. I was called a dictator, a Communist, undemocratic, prejudiced, "not of the right type" for a fraternity; and accused of unwholesome acts, grave mistakes, unfairness, injustice, perpetrating "what would take place in Russia," and "dealing the educational system a telling blow." My associates and I were sued in Federal court, and had to go all the way to the United States Supreme Court in defending ourselves.

What aroused the storm? Merely this: Disturbed by the irresponsible actions of many of the fraternity national officers in the fall of 1953, I recommended to the Trustees of the State University of New York that we require all the national-affiliated fraternities and sororities within State University of New York to go on a "local" basis. Giving them up to five years to work out their new status and prevent hardships in transfer of chapter houses, etc., we nevertheless urged them to discontinue their national affiliation without delay.

In a parallel action at the same time, we warned *all* our fraternal units—national and local alike—to eliminate absolutely any racial-religious discrimination in their membership practices. This is scarcely a new regulation in itself, for several other colleges—Amherst, Dartmouth, Columbia, the University of Connecticut, for instance—already forbid the race clause in fraternities' constitutions. And our own State of New York, by law, prohibits such artificial criteria in employment or admissions practices generally. In a sense, then, New York's State University was only insuring that its students act in accord with the law. Am I, then, a dictator or a subversive, as accused in those unlovely fraternity letters? Why were we forced into the Federal courts to defend our regulations of student groups? What aroused the fraternities' hatred—and fear?

The answer is simple. Many of the fraternities do not fear the college that tells them to break up discriminatory practices because they're confident that they are bigger than the law. National headquarters of these fraternities tells them, in effect: "We'll show an acceptable constitution—but you go ahead and blackball any Negro, or Jew, or Catholic, or anyone else that you want to keep out, and who'll ever know the reason? It's a secret vote, isn't it? And you active members aren't going to let the subversive element run our fraternity . . . are you?"

In their earliest origins, roughly a century ago, college fraternities were small clubs organized on a single campus. They grew up in a manner very similar to the neighborhood gang that the same boys had organized when only a few years younger. The early secret ritual was a logical upshot of what happens when youngsters form a club.

THIS FORMAT of the fraternity is described by the National Interfraternity Conference itself in a booklet published to explain and defend the fraternity system. The National Interfraternity Conference points out that in the early days poor communication virtually isolated the colleges and their fraternities, and adds: "The government, therefore, of fraternities was of boys, for boys, and by boys." But all that has been ended, happily in the National Interfraternity Conference view: Occasional conventions of affiliated fraternities became "in theory, at least," the governing bodies of the emerging national fraternities. But this "did not do away with the need of a central force to govern *ad interim*."

"In general," the National Interfraternity Conference explains innocently, "the council was a small body, usually alumni, elected by the convention and clothed with executive, judicial, and administrative authority over the whole fraternity during the recesses between conventions. These councils functioned like the board of directors of a corporation." The NIC then adds that the business of running national fraternities became "so complicated in detail as to require a fixed and complete organization with a corps of officers and employes to attend to them."

"Paid officers were placed in charge of the central administrative office who devoted most, if not all, of their time to the work of administration. Thus, there grew to be perma-

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Education in the News: 1955-56

By FRED M. HECHINGER, *education editor,* New York Herald Tribune.

IN JULY 1955 the Progressive Education Association came to an end. Its officers announced that the organization's work had been accomplished, that there was no longer any need for the group's efforts.

It was not a much publicized event. In fact, if few people knew that the organization still existed, even fewer were aware of its formal demise. And still, there is in its formal termination a symbol which stands for much that has been happening throughout the year and the few years of the immediate past:

In one sense the officers of the now defunct Progressive Education Association were right in saying that the "job" they had set for themselves quite some time ago—in the Twenties—has been completed. Through years of controversy and name-calling, traditional and progressive education (and their followers) have been battling and working and theorizing for the upper hand. In the end neither of the two won.

But in the end, too, both proved important: much of the substance and of the ideas of each rubbed off on the body of American education. Some of the results were unfortunate; some were happily temporary; some were ridiculous; some were overpublicized. But education continued, and much that was good in the old and in the new came to be part of a system that in the long run cannot be either traditionalist or progressive. It is merely living and changing, and life is always both new and old.

This year, it seems, this was more clearly understood: there was less name-calling. The uniformed controversy died down. People were arguing about ways of getting more and better schools rather than whether certain labels and theories were subversive. Therefore it seems symbolic that few noticed that the Progressive Education Association, whose very name had so often evoked near-violence, could ring down the final curtain without public hissing or applause. The audience had moved on to another show.

Let's take a look at the year's show:

• • In 1955 there is no escape from statistics. They are not much different from those of the year before—only a little more menacing:

Enrollment figures were still rising. It became increasingly more evident that the figure of speech that pictured a "flood" or a "tide" was misleading. The United States is moving instead to a new plateau of larger families and greater demands for more and longer (and, at least to some extent, better) education. It may look like a tide or a flood in 1955; but it will be a permanently high and rising level. Here are some of the facts:

Enrollments from kindergarten through higher and adult education—both public and private—approached thirty-eight million. Total elementary school enrollment, with twenty-six and a half million, exceeded that of a year ago by almost 1,400,000. The secondary schools, creeping toward the seven-million mark, took care of 168,000 more youngsters than the year before. The colleges and universities were getting near the two-and-a-half-million point—an increase of 85,000.

The number of teachers with emergency certificates increased from 78,850 a year ago to 80,680 now. We now have a total of just over one million (1,066,234) teachers in the public elementary and secondary schools. At the beginning of the term we will be at least 55,000 teachers short of what we need, to use the most conservative of all estimates.

More school buildings were put up in 1954-1955 than in any previous year in the nation's history. At a cost of a little over two billion dollars, 60,000 new classrooms were built. If we continued at that rate the shortage of classrooms in 1960 would still be estimated at 176,000. In order to get the rooms we really need we would have to spend sixteen billion dollars for them by 1960.

All of this meant that in the course of the year between two and three million children could not be taught in adequate buildings. Many of them were on half-day sessions or less.

In 1954 more than ten billion dollars were spent on public education in the United States. School taxes brought in a revenue of over $7,783,000,000—more than twice the figure of eight years ago. Of this more than 95 per cent came from state and local taxation. The states' contribution (which averaged 37 per cent for all the states) varied from 4 per cent in New Hampshire to 83 per cent in Delaware.

• • This is the year of the White House Conference on Education, to be held from November 28 to December 1. (See page 14 of this issue for a presentation of some of the facts it will face.)

• • The colleges were looking forward to expansion—much in the same way as the schools. (For a discussion of this see page 26.)

There were two bright spots on the college horizon. The first was the gradual but, for the first time, distinctly recognizable contributions by industry. These were no longer sporadic gifts; corporate money is beginning to be made available on a regular, long-range, and orderly basis—most of it in form of unrestricted grants. (See "More Money for Our Colleges and Where It's Coming From," *SR*, July 30.)

The second item of good news was revolutionary and sensational. A fifty-million-dollar grant by the Ford Foundation will be used entirely to improve faculty salaries. While the selections have not yet been announced, it is already clear that between fifty and a hundred privately financed four-year liberal-arts colleges will benefit. They will have to match the gift on a scale that will vary from one to three. They will have to add their grants to the endowment, using only the income for the actual boosting of teachers' pay.

Several results are expected: the increase on salaries in key institutions all across the country will improve the salary pattern everywhere; corporations and other foundations may want to use similar schemes to aid those worthy institutions who will not be covered by the Ford Foundation plan; an orderly system of the support of the heart of good education—good teaching—may have been set up.

• • Since the present use and distribution of teachers will make it impossible to meet the needs of the future (see statistics above) experimentation is under way to get out of

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"Redeeming" American Education?

EDITOR'S NOTE: *While thousands of Americans are still reading and arguing about Rudolf Flesch's "Why Johnny Can't Read" (SR July 30), the publishing house of Alfred A. Knopf is planning to issue next week a book that may well create fresh storms among educators and parents. Its name:* ***"The Restoration of Learning."*** *Its author: Arthur Bestor, professor of history at the University of Illinois and author of a book that caused its share of controversy when it was published two years ago called "Educational Wastelands." Its price: $6. Once again* SR *is following its practice of presenting a summary of the book that is just as objective as we can make it (see below), along with two opposing views of the work (see opposite page). Arguing in favor of the book is Arthur Lynd, author of "Quackery in the Public Schools," former college teacher, currently a Manhattan advertising man. Taking the opposite view is Maurice R. Ahrens, head of the department of elementary education, University of Florida.*

IN 1953 Arthur Bestor stirred up educational circles with a scathing book entitled "Educational Wastelands: The Retreat from Learning in Our Public Schools" (University of Illinois Press). Mr. Bestor is not unequipped for the tournaments over educational theories. He is a professor of history at the University of Illinois, has taught at Yale, Stanford, Minnesota, Northwestern, the University of Wyoming, and Columbia University's Teachers College, has served as president of the Illinois State Historical Society, has served as a member of the Committee on American Civilization of the American Council of Learned Societies, and is the author of numerous articles and books on education.

Since he raised so many controversial issues in writing of "Educational Wastelands" Dr. Bestor felt it his duty to search for answers to them. He records his search in his new book, "The Restoration of Learning: A Program for Redeeming the Unfulfilled Promise of American Education." The volume is divided into four parts: "The Purposes of Education," "Aimlessness in Education," "Roads to Educational Reform," and "Enlightenment and Liberty." The first section is devoted to a recapitulation and expansion of his earlier indictment of those in the "interlocking directorate of educationists" who, he says, water down liberal education into meaningless curricula, discourage independence on the part of public-school teachers, and substitute unrealistic pedagogy for scholarly competence. Many school administrators and professors of education, according to Dr. Bestor, are likewise disturbed "at the dangerously anti-intellectual tendencies of such programs as 'life-adjustment' education" and at "the overemphasis that is given to mere pedagogy in state certification requirements."

Dr. Bestor is worried about what he calls "foolish and irresponsible tampering with the fundamental curriculum." For example, instead of strengthening the teaching of the Three R's some educationists, he says, are devising ways and means to cut down attention to these studies. He deplores the fact that after "nine full years of formal schooling a student need not be expected to read his mother tongue or to know the multiplication table." What education should strive to produce on every school level, he says, is the disciplined mind; it should be produced through the command of written English, foreign languages, mathematics, abstract processes of analyzing, generalizing, and criticizing. Dr. Bestor emphasizes that "these intellectual abilities *are* required, not merely as prerequisites for advanced study, but also and especially for intelligent participation in the private and public affairs of a world where decisions must be made on the basis of informed and accurate thinking about science, about economics, about history and politics."

Without "the development of generalized intellectual powers," Dr. Bestor continues, training in a professional and vocational direction defeats itself. Tricks of a specific trade may be picked on the job as well as in school, but it requires well-rounded intelligence to apply those "tricks of the trade" constructively. Further, Dr. Bestor notes, "Liberal education is designed to produce self-reliance. It expects a man to use his general intelligence to solve particular problems. Vocational and 'life-adjustment' " programs, on the other hand, breed servile dependence. Originality, reason, and common sense are at a discount; maxims, formulas, and rules (the most degraded kinds of book learning) are at a premium. One can search history and biography in vain for evidence that men or women have ever accomplished anything original, creative, or significant by narrowly conceived vocational training or by education programs that aimed merely at 'life adjustment.' The West was not settled by men and women who had taken courses in 'How to Be a Pioneer.' The mechanical ingenuity that is the proverbial characteristic of the American people owes nothing whatever to schoolroom manipulation of gadgets. To transfer to the classroom the kinds of learning that occur naturally in real life is evidence not merely of a disbelief in intellectual training. It reveals also a contemptuous lack of faith in the native good sense of the common man." Dr. Bestor states his belief that "vocational training can be integrated with liberal education without destroying the values of either."

DR. Bestor charges that "wilfully or not, professional educationists are effectually discouraging the entrance of good students into public-school teaching"; this is proved, he says, by statistics which show "that among those who willingly enroll themselves as majors in education the level of intellectual ability is appallingly low."

Despite this bleak picture Dr. Bestor is able to point out that there are thousands of teachers whose work stands up to the most searching scholarly scrutiny. This kind of professional responsibility is not being furthered, however. Teachers are being forced to divert more and more time into pedagogy at precisely the moment when they need to develop greater scholarly competence than ever before."

In summary, Dr. Bestor suggests that remedial action be taken all the way up and down the academic line: More rigorous action in training all students in the rudimentary arts; improving our methods in dealing with slow learners; granting teachers real academic responsibility and freedom; raising incentives for good teachers to join the school system; loosening the dictatorial hold of the "interlocking directorate of educationists" who are arrogating to themselves greater and greater power over teacher and curriculum.

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Yes

By Albert Lynd

IN THE last few years many statements have called attention to the debasement of learning in our public schools. Dr. Bestor's new book is the definitive statement. It is written by an eminent historian with twenty-five years of teaching experience. It is learned, lucid, and complete in its survey of the present damage and in its program for reform.

The chief agent of debasement has been the academic *arriviste* impertinently titled "Professor of Education." Since his rise to power the decline in our high schools of what Dr. Bestor properly calls the "intellectual disciplines" is a matter of record. Enrollment statistics of the last few generations show drastic percentage declines in such subjects as geometry, physics, and foreign languages. In many schools history survives largely as a diluted ingredient of something called "social studies." The Professor of Education is gutting the curriculum in the name of "democracy" and, more recently, in the name of "life adjustment."

Since "life adjustment" may require time for countless concerns (such as how to buy groceries, how to choose a dentist, *etc., ad inf.*) there is necessarily less time available for serious study in the intellectual disciplines, even if the New Educationist loved them. In fact, he abominates them. He regards what he calls "traditional learning" as a mere "accumulation of facts." As Dr. Bestor indicates, this is an absurdity which could not be uttered by any man with personal experience of real learning.

Dr. Bestor provides abundant and stupefying examples of anti-intellectualism in the new pedagogy. The New Educationist insists that students can get all they need of the intellectual disciplines in those scraps that may be retained in a "core" of "common learnings." It is said that the curriculum is being "integrated" in a way that will help students to solve "life problems." Dr. Bestor points out a logical flaw here. The proper solution of any problem begins with analysis, not synthesis. For the solution of the most difficult problems that beset us today we need analytical tools furnished by the formal disciplines that Educationists despise: mathematics, the sciences, history, languages, and others. Dr. Bestor's discussion of the relation of genuine learning to the actual problem of living—problems about which the Educationists talk so much—is clear and convincing.

The author's program for the restoration of learning turns upon a proposal that qualified scholars and scientists reclaim their jurisdiction over the content of school courses and the training of teachers. Professors of Education—preferably without that presumptuous title—should confine themselves to the techniques of pedagogy. They have made some valuable contributions to those techniques, it is not denied. But let them leave the content of education to persons who know something about the several arts and sciences. An enormous gulf separates secondary-school teachers professionally and intellectually from the mathematicians, historians, and others on university faculties.

In the Educationist ideal today teachers of mathematics, for example, are not primarily mathematicians; teachers of history should not even pretend to real scholarship in history. They are committed to a perpetual study of "Education." A teacher today with a good record of scholarship in the liberal arts may even be considered handicapped, by her concern for "subject matter," in her life-adjusting career as a "glorified baby sitter." The phrase is Dr. Bestor's, and his opinions in this section are supported by the letters of many teachers who *have* had a good education in the liberal arts. They are among the bitterest critics of the Education courses into which they are forced.

DR. Bestor discusses at length and with much wisdom the school problems raised by universal attendance, and by the slow learners. He shows how these problems may be tackled, if there is a will to do so, without committing our schools to intellectual nihilism in the name of "democracy."

What "democracy" means to some members of the new cult is shown in Dr. Bestor's Chapter 13. There were frantic efforts by the Education *bund* to prevent the publication of Bestor's earlier writings on the schools. Most interesting were the antics of an Educationist who became president of the University of Nevada. He fired from his faculty a biologist who dared to circulate a Bestor article and who had also objected to the lowering of university entrance standards.

Considering the furor created by Dr. Bestor's "Educational Wastelands" all hell may break loose with this larger work. That could be a good thing. It could help the school-owning public to make a clear distinction between reputable scholars like Dr. Bestor and hacks in academic disguise.

No

By Maurice R. Ahrens

FOR THOSE who have read "Educational Wastelands" Professor Bestor's new book will be a great disappointment. All of the chapters in his earlier book have been included in this one, either in identical or revised form. The fifteen new chapters, in which some new areas are explored are largely devoted to a somewhat repetitious amplification of ideas and concepts presented in the original volume.

Since "Educational Wastelands" has been analyzed and evaluated in a flood of reviews in many periodicals there would be no point in reiterating here evidence of the author's faulty thinking, of his frequent use of sweeping generalizations without supporting data, of the complete void in his understanding of the public-school program ("I have chosen to study the philosophy of the professional educationists rather than to make a tour of the classrooms. . . .") and of his "stacked" selection of references in the literature in order to prove his contentions. Rather I should prefer to concentrate this review upon three new chapters in which Professor Bestor attempts to spell out an organizational plan for the public-school program—kindergarten through junior college.

The three new chapters (19, 20, 21), each titled "Educating the Slow Learner," are misnamed because they actually describe an organizational plan for all children and youth in our public schools. This proposal is completely impractical, unrealistic, and fantastic. Professor Bestor has demonstrated again the naivete of a person who tries to comprehend the organization and curriculum of the public schools from an examination of the literature alone.

The plan which he suggests is one which is essentially based upon the homogeneous grouping of children according to mental age. Children of all mental ages would enter kindergarten at the chronological age of five and remain there until they have attained a minimum mental age of six. (This would mean that a child whose I. Q. is fifty would continue in kindergarten for seven years, although Professor Bestor would relent and keep him there only three years.) Following kindergarten he would divide all children into six groups (according to mental ages). Two groups would remain in kindergarten, two would be placed in the first grade, and two in the second grade. Each

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Realism in Provence

"The Malediction," by Jean Giono *(translated by Peter Mendelssohn. Criterion Books. 157 pp. $3), is the story of a curse cast upon a great land-owning family of southern France by a writer already recognized as his country's greatest living regionalist writer whose work here takes a new and even more exciting turn.*

By Laurent LeSage

IMAGINE a visit to a country town in southern France during which a garrulous old resident spins you a yarn about a great land-owning family of the region and the curse it has borne for generations. That is the substance and method of "The Malediction," an excellent translation of "Le Moulin de Pologne," which came out in the original French in 1952.

Its author is France's greatest living regionalist writer. For over twenty years he has exploited Provence and his own village of Manosque for stories of simple folk living so close to the earth they can scarcely be distinguished from the crops they raise or the beasts they tend. Although his subject remains basically the same, as a writer Jean Giono has passed through several phases. He began by extolling his native hills and valleys in accents reminiscent of Homer and Virgil. A resuscitated Pan blows on his pipes in Giono's rustic tales of honest sensuality, joy in living, and fearlessness in death. Then, no longer content to make beautiful music, Giono began to preach. He railed against modern civilization and capitalism and exhorted humanity to return to a pastoral way of life. Only a few cranks could take him seriously, and younger writers made sport of his shepherds talking to the stars. Moreover, his passivism and defeatism during the Occupation exasperated patriotic Frenchmen, who quoted his words: *"Je ne dis jamais France: ça n'existe pas."* Since the war Giono has dropped his sermonizing and rhapsodizing to develop a powerful fictional talent which is fast restoring him to favor.

"The Malediction" is a product of the new Giono. Through the fragmentary confidences of our sly narrator, scenes of a sinister fate tragedy are conjured up. As he recounts the violent deaths, madness, and deformity that plague each generation, the atmosphere thickens in horror and suspense. There are mysterious omissions. Who was Coste, this man who returned from Mexico with fortune enough to buy the Moulin de Pologne and what was this curse that took several generations to exorcise? Who also is Joseph, who turns up in similar fashion many years later and marries Julie, most pitiful of victims? Even the spying, snooping old hunchback, our informer, may not know.

The *Schicksalstragödie* combines with a comedy of provincial manners acted out by the stock characters of tradesfolk, better families, marriageable daughters, etc. But there are no pretty bucolic characters of Giono's earlier style among these brutes who feed on scandal and torment the innocent.

In bringing the whole nasty town together for a ball Giono creates the finest scene in the novel and one worthy of the great nineteenth-century Realists. There is the cold mockery of Flaubert in showing the rain and mud that spoil the gaudy finery of the evening, in letting odors from the nearby slaughter-house pervade the gentry's nostrils. The roar of guffaws that greets Julie's pathetic dance is the sort of climax Zola might have contrived. By presenting scenes and characters through an old gossip as insensitive as his fellows, Giono obtains an irony as flinty as Maupassant's. He also thereby permits a full use of naive expression, his own speciality, as apt as it is picturesque. Here, for example, is a lady of the town, "her vast bosom bulging out enormously over a void, and by virtue of both compression and unfailing self-control she had contrived to push her belly into her bottom."

The new Giono is very much to our taste. His philosophy and his art indicate a rich maturity. It is pleasant to know that he has in mind writing many more chronicles like "The Malediction."

On the State of Art

By Robert Nathan

I SERVE a Mistress, name of Art,
Not with my head or with my heart
But with spirit. Poor is She
And made a mock continually.
Consider now Her meager rations:
Who loves no woman draws her fashions;
Who loves no man declares Him vile
And makes the rules and sets the style.
Critics too old or grown too dull
Forget She once was beautiful;
Or else, too young and sharp of bone,
Never let go to the grindlestone . . .
Never have loved the lonely, wide,
Slow moving of the eventide,
Never have felt the simple, sweet
Beat of the heart or dancing feet,
Or known the stars in their true stations—
(But know by name the imitations!)
He reaches C? And he can do so?
The man must be at least Caruso!
The jay's despisal, hornet's sting,
The symphony no one can sing,
The poems mewing in the mists,
The novels of misanthropists—
And over all, the loud huzzahs
Of scholars, critics, commissars,
While Art, poor soul, grows ever thinner
On vinegar and scraps for dinner.

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Byron Herbert Reece—"dramatic impact."

Guilt and Blood

***"The Hawk and the Sun," by Byron Herbert Reece** (E. P. Dutton. 192 pp. $3), is the story of a lynching in a small Southern town.*

By Harrison Smith

ALTHOUGH 1,792 Negroes have been lynched in the United States from the beginning of the century to the present day, there have been no recorded evidences of this hideous form of racial hatred during the last four years, and only two during the last decade. Nevertheless, mob violence ending in a lynching remains a sure-fire theme for today's novelist, who is certain to command a large number of readers if he can keep them in a state of suspense and horror from the first to the last chapter.

If there is some doubt in the minds of readers of Byron Herbert Reece's "The Hawk and the Sun" as to the ethics of reviving this gruesome subject at the present time when we are on the verge of ridding ourselves of an ancient evil, there can be no doubt of the dramatic impact of this short novel on sensitive minds. It is all the better, or perhaps the worse, for the lyrical prose style of its author, who is both a poet and a novelist.

Mr. Reece, a Southerner, has conceived of a small town somewhere in the South from which every Negro, except one old and crippled man, had been sent into exile for an unlikely reason, since in the South all towns, small or large, are dependent, to some extent, on the labor of their colored population. This strange act was the result of the discovery of the body of a white prostitute, lying in a ditch, with her new-born child, a mulatto, beside her. A Negro had, obviously, had intercourse with a white woman; a racial crime had been committed which inevitably would be eradicated by the murder of a harmless, aged man, whose name was Dandelion.

Dandelion lived in a ruinous shack on "a street of no name." He woke at dawn from a troubled sleep and hobbled on his maimed legs to his daily tasks in the center of the town. Among the houses he served was one belonging to a wealthy old woman who lived in a mansion with her precocious niece, Rhoda. Another was inhabited by a neurotic woman, known to everyone as Miss Ella, who owned the town bookstore. Miss Ella was lying in bed, ill with a fever, when Dandelion stumbled into her room. She screamed like a siren, and Dandelion committed the error which led to his death before nightfall. He ran as best he could down the street. A vituperative woman next door had heard the scream and watched the running Negro. The news spread through the town. Miss Ella had been raped!

Many others, old and young, contributed to the infamy which followed. The single cultured and learned man in town, the high-school history teacher and librarian, called the minister. The pastor's latest sermon had dealt with guilt and blood. That morning adolescent Rhoda had strangled her aunt's cat in an erotic moment as she watched a dark boy, the librarian's son, wrestling on the ground with a blond youth. The pastor refused to interfere with the inevitable lynching. "I am only a sponge," he had said, "to sop the blood from the conscience of my people." The town banker refused to help. "My business is to accept and loan money."

The mob gathered and found old Dandelion lying in a chicken coop behind his shack. He was tortured atrociously and dragged uphill to a tall tree. Since he could not stand to be hanged and his death must be prolonged, he was tied to a limb of the tree. He was stabbed with knives and died at the moment when he was emasculated. Later the librarian watched a hawk perched on his head, providing Mr. Reece with his symbolic title. His son and the blond boy had watched the execution lying in each other's arms. The rest of his appalling novel is concerned with the after-effect on his murderers, a grim story of blood and eroticism to be told in this year of grace, 1955.

—*Erich Hartmann*

Robert M. Coates—"no trickery."

Slow Catharsis

***"The Farther Shore," by Robert M. Coates** (Harcourt, Brace. 279 pp. $3.50), a story set in the tuning department of a piano factory, tells of an ordinary, decent man driven under a compulsion to perform desperate acts.*

By Oliver La Farge

ROBERT M. COATES'S new novel, "The Farther Shore," is a genuinely unusual book, a detailed, sympathetic, and convincing study of a decent man under a compulsion. At the beginning, the reader is provided with the information he needs to understand where the whole thing is going; then, because the story is told so completely from within the main character, Cormoris, and Cormoris is such a reasonable and likable man, the reader finds himself convinced by the man's private logic.

The denouement, when it comes, is a shock. But there has been no trickery; it is all there, all the evidence has been presented as neatly as in a first-class detective story, the characterization is complete. This book becomes most impressive after one has finished it and looks back, seeing how solidly it is constructed, how completely we have accepted Cormoris's mental and emotional processes, how slightly they differed from what we consider normal.

In the process of reading through the main body, not knowing where this quiet tale is leading, a reader may find the book a trifle slow and over-

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detailed. Part of its point is that extreme drama builds up and finally explodes among most ordinary people; hence one of the author's problems is to prevent the ordinariness of most of their small sayings and doings from becoming dull. That is no small problem, and Mr. Coates has not entirely solved it. Not many have.

He helps himself by the use of good local color about the men in the tuning department of a piano factory, to which he has added a small but well-chosen group of New York types. His minor characters come out round. That he recognized his difficulty is shown by his several warnings, early in the book, that Cormoris is heading towards tragedy. These are frankly author's statements, and seem to reflect a realization that his very success in making us accept Cormoris as usual, getting us to like him and go along with him just as the other characters do, may leave us wondering why there are some of the minutiae that turn out in the end to have so much meaning.

I did find, as I read along, that in places I wondered whether Cormoris and his Edie were worth the attention they were getting. I have felt the same thing occasionally with some of H. G. Wells's very common men. Now two days after finishing it, the book has grown on me. This is a book one can mull over afterwards with satisfaction. Part of its unusualness is in Mr. Coates's achievement of what I think can be called a slow catharsis.

Escape to God

"The Flight Into Egypt," by Jean Bloch-Michel *(translated by Frances Frenaye. Charles Scribner's Sons. 315 pp. $3), is a psychological and spiritual story of a French family in flight during World War II.*

By Henri Peyre

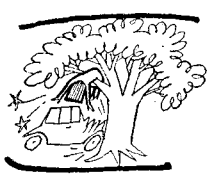
IT IS surprising that French fiction of the last decade should have drawn as yet so little inspiration from the tragic catastrophe of 1940, from the thrilling and often epic vicissitudes of the Resistance, and from the pathetic woes endured by the refugees fleeing on the roads or by the prisoners in concentration camps. The French have probably preferred to forget and look ahead; their artistic sense must have told them that the perspective of a few more years might enable them to recollect those events in greater tranquility and to shun the pitfall of sentimentality.

Jean Bloch-Michel's "The Flight Into Egypt," which contains very few of the ordinary ingredients of a novel, is the psychological and spiritual story of a family which took to flight in 1940 over congested roads. Pierre and Yvonne and their three children huddled in fear in a cellar while German planes rained bombs around them. In their panic, they were obsessed by only one idea: to flee. The flight was senseless, and one of the weaknesses of the book is that nowhere is it reasoned or explained; even their fear is not powerfully communicated to the reader. They went south, then east, amid scenes of pathos and of violence. One of their children became separated from them during a bombardment and was never recovered; the other two, exhausted, resentful, accustomed to the sight of death like the little girl in "Forbidden Games," learned to live in isolation with their parents but also in secret anger. They had seen their mother stab with her own hand a stranger who, in his hunger, had tried to attack her father in order to rob him. The family of four eventually reached an Alpine retreat in a mountain village whose inhabitants had been deported. For two years, they lived amid the snow and the wind, feeding on what their father could bring from his expeditions to the valley. One day at last he fell into an encampment of friendly soldiers and was persuaded to return to the society of men.

Like very many modern French novelists, Jean Bloch-Michel is primarily a moralist and a subtle artist—not a teller of tales. His earliest volume, "The Witness," had showed remarkable gifts as a study of remorse. The underlying theme of "The Flight Into Egypt," as the title suggests, is moral and religious. A family lives for month after month in isolation, frightened by the inhumanity which the disorderly flight has released in their fellow beings. But all family feelings gradually become corroded by such unnatural solitude; a longing for God, at least for faith in some higher presence, seizes them after they discover a religious fresco in a mountain church, near their mountain refuge. The message of the book and its symbolic value are at no time made too obvious; nor are they ever pretentiously esoteric. The novel has simplicity, humanity, and genuine emotional strength.

YET it is not an altogether successful book. The tone is monotonous, too poetical, and too stylized; the characters are never heard talking to each other in a normal, direct way. Pierre and Yvonne are revealed in intermittent interior monologues which emphasize their growing solitude but fail to bring out the more direct and familiar aspects of their personalities. The family is delineated as morbidly concentrated on itself, to the point of incredibility on the reader's part. There is no humor whatever in their encounters with people, no concern

(*Continued on page 62*)



Your Literary I. Q.

Conducted by John T. Winterich

ARSENIC AND OLD LUSTS

Ruth B. Stebbins of Elizabeth, New Jersey, presents capsule accounts of the demises of ten fictional ladies and asks you to give their names, the titles of the works in which they appear, and the authors of those same works. If, of the thirty pieces of information required, you assemble no more than fifteen, fie upon you; if from sixteen through twenty-four, nice but keep trying; if twenty-five or better, goody-goody. Answers on page 64.

1. After poisoning her husband with the connivance of her lover, who was later murdered by her son, this tempestuous woman committed suicide by shooting.
2. Twice widowed, this forlorn lady killed herself by crashing her car into a tree.
3. This below-the-equator girl was burned to death in the branches of a tree.
4. After writing a letter which caused her cousin to be accused of her murder, this unpleasant wife committed suicide by taking arsenic.
5. This Wessex wife drowned with her lover despite his efforts to save her.
6. Before the story opens, this unfaithful wife was shot by her husband, who then put her body in a boat and sank the boat.
7. This Parisian courtesan gave up the man she really loved and then dies of tuberculosis.
8. This unhappy Russian girl ended it all by throwing herself under a train.
9. This wife of a French physician dittoed with arsenic.
10. This neurotic Scandinavian wife shot herself with her father's pistol.

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ECONOMICS AND LIFE

Good Times A'Coming

"Time for Living," by George Soule *(Viking Press. 184 pp. $3), is an economist's conclusions about the possibilities increased production and increased leisure hold out for man. It is reviewed below by John F. Gambs, Leavenworth professor of economics at Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y.*

By John F. Gambs

WHEN economists leave their dull tasks of analysis behind, turn to social philosophy, and foretell man's destiny, they become interesting and sometimes sensational. We remember Malthus not because he was a workmanlike economist, but because he was also a social philosopher who frightened us into believing that overpopulation might halt human advance. Fourier is still an appealing figure because he predicted an era of universal human love, so great that even lions would become the friends of man.

Among living American economists it is hard to think of anyone better fitted to discuss man's larger destiny than George Soule. He has always approached economics as a social philosopher, yet has long associated himself, partly through the National Bureau of Economic Research, with the more rigorous followers of scientific method.

In his new book, Soule sees the possibility of uninterrupted and increasing abundance coupled with increased leisure, for the United States presently and for the world ultimately. Science and technology will neutralize the harsh law of diminishing return, dull the twin threats of overpopulation and dwindling resources; and mass unemployment will be vanquished with tools already at hand. War may of course wreck everything; but war may be averted, he believes. Thus there will be an overflowing fullness of material things. What is even more important, our abundance can be produced so easily that there will be time to live. That is the key to Soule's view of the future. The great gift of capitalism and technology is leisure. The basis of human perfectibility is free time.

There is nothing new in this, Mr. Soule modestly observes. It is already happening. Already our society has chosen to limit its paid working hours, and already leisured men and women are spending their disengaged time worthily. The forty-hour American pays out more money for symphonies than for baseball; he lays more house-paint and hangs more wallpaper than the professionals.

Soule realizes that pseudo-cultural and do-it-yourself statistics do not prove his case, and considers the possibility that the human race, having at long last developed a society of abundance and leisure, may after all fritter away its heritage reading the comics. Worse, man may become an Orwell prole or a creature out of "Brave New World." Soule dispels these grotesque visions of man's fate. He trusts the humanism in us; he feels that we have already chosen the great gift of leisure in preference to the additional frippery and tinsel that we could produce in a sixty-hour week; and, finally, the author believes that some of our least attractive qualities are currently determined by the large place still held by the market in our lives.

It is here that Soule makes his most interesting point. As people increase the number of their free hours, they shake themselves free from the market. For example, as leisure increases, writers, painters, musicians will not be compelled to produce for wide sale because they will be able to get a tolerable living doing something else twenty hours a week. They will still have energy enough and time left over to follow art as they please. And, of course, freedom to create is not for artists only. Under a regime of leisure many homes will wish to bring back—many are even now bringing back—some of the crafts surrendered to business enterprise in recent years.

Thus there will be two economies. One will be founded, as at present, on private property and will be guided by the market. This will yield a rich flood of basic, machine-made goods. The other will be a sort of handicraft economy, arising out of leisure, that will produce anything from do-it-yourself potholders to do-it-yourself chamber music—or, it may even take on the grander task of producing better men and women. The typical member of the labor force will move in both economies. The whole concept is as if one combined the virtues of William Morris's "News from Nowhere" with the virtues of automation under capitalism.

This is a quietly important book. It lacks the color and drama of Orwell's "Nineteen Eighty-Four"; no thundering vocabulary points to a season of doom, as in Marx or Spengler. There is no Wellsian promise of new worlds for old. But Soule does offer the hope that the human race will, in greater leisure, find the basis for the fuller flowering of John Stuart Mill's noble "Art of Living." And that, if achieved, will be Utopian enough.

"Something new we're trying out—air mail."

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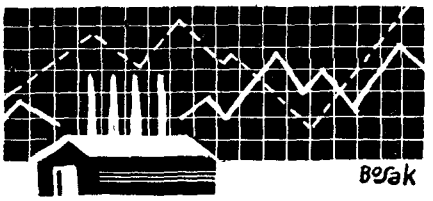

Hints for the Helmsmen

"Management of Expanding Enterprises" *(125 pp. $2.75) and* ***"What Makes An Executive?"*** *(179 pp. $3.50) are reports on round-table discussions of problems currently troubling industry, to which men who knew them at first-hand contributed. The first volume was prepared by William H. Newman and James P. Logan; Eli Ginzburg was the chairman of the discussion responsible for the second volume. Both are published by Columbia University Press. They are reviewed below by Arthur R. Upgren, dean of the Amos Tuck School of Business Administration at Dartmouth College.*

By Arthur R. Upgren

IN COMMEMMORATING the fiftieth anniversary of Alfred Marshall's famous "Principles of Economics" Professor Jacob Viner observed that economists mostly mirror the times in which they live. Two small books recently published, "Management of Expanding Enterprises" and "What Makes An Executive?," do the same. Merely by their titles and their publication at this time they tell that a) business is expanding; b) that the expansion requires management; and c) that the management is supplied by executives who operate within an enterprise. We are grateful for the expansion of business, for the existence of enterprise, and we hope there will be more executives trained by the methods of these books to do the needed managing.

A few years ago most books in the field of labor were called "Labor Problems." Today the words are "Manpower Management." In economics the progression has been from "Elements of Political Economy" into "Principles of Economics," and then to just plain "Economics" at the very time—1930—when the emphasis should have been on *political* economy and *principles.*

In the field of executive development do we know much that is new, or do we write about management just because we now need to know so very much about it? I am not sure what the answer is. These books at least give the opinion of academic and business experts about what management is. They tell us "what makes an executive."

Management can be obtained in larger doses by decentralizing decision-making. This is, of course, also the way to make more machine tools when you are in a hurry. Break up the job into more parts so that people less able than the overworked executives or managers can take on responsibility.

As decision-making is decentralized the top executives assume a very specialized role, so that superficially it appears that they are getting less and less work done themselves. Their functions now are three-fold: to "stop, look, and listen," or, more accurately, listen (like the mechanic for creaks and groans in your car), to educate people lower than themselves on the managerial hierarchical ladder, and to ask questions. As they do this they make fewer and fewer decisions. For example, the boards of directors (composed of managers) of some very large and very successful petroleum corporations make few specific decisions. What is asked of them is a "consensus."

The final task is making general decisions only at the top and "passing the buck" like a good first sergeant to others below. The asking of questions compels lower-order executives to think out their problem (the decision then comes more easily) and to learn how well actual performance approximates the standards of performance set for the enterprise and its components. This leaves top management's decks or rather desks clear for attention to long-range plans.

This is the terrain covered by these two volumes as this reviewer sees it. To this he would add that the senior management must understand the world external to his business (the "political economy" of the old textbooks) so that he may adjust his own enterprise to the currents, streams, and economic tides of the entire economy. Not since 1933 may he think he steers his course with complete independence. Even the USA cannot now do that.

The group studying the management of expanding enterprises had an easier time than did the group that tried to find out what makes an executives. It is not as difficult to decide to put a man in a place of responsibility so that he can make decisions as it is to decide which man to put in that managerial spot.

The round-table technique used in the preparation of these two books results in a product that severely limits any non-specialist reviewer like myself. Both books have the not inconsiderable merits of brevity, readability, and—occasionally—wit. Grants by the McKinsey Foundation for Management Research assisted in their preparation. Because they are intended for reading by busy men a short summary of conclusions reached would have been most useful.

Where They Are

FOR THE REFERENCE SHELF: Etna M. Kelley's **"The Business Founding Date Directory"** (Morgan & Morgan, Scarsdale, N. Y., $10) furnishes a unique dictionary-listing of more than 9,000 American business firms and their year of founding, confined to the 1687-1915 period. It is a listing which does not guarantee inclusiveness or accuracy, but these are limitations which no compiler can hope to surmount in this particular field. For convenience's sake Miss Kelley's directory categorizes information both alphabetically and chronologically, with notations as to the service or product handled by the establishments. Researchers, mailing-list compilers, anniversary celebrants, Americana hunters, and public-relations people should find this specialized directory very useful.

A joint effort by the Economists Intelligence Unit and the Cartographic Department of the Clarendon Press has resulted in the well-planned **"Oxford Economic Atlas of the World"** (Oxford University Press, $7). Introducing the atlas is a section devoted to world maps which show the variation of physical elements such as rainfall, soil types, vegetation, and temperatures which bear direct influence on regional economics. Then the atlas splits into two main parts: commodity maps which include a wide range of items from textiles to non-ferrous minerals and a series of complementary indexes which give import, export, and production data by countries. For people who require information relating to general trade and economic geography this atlas fills the need.

—SIEGFRIED MANDEL.

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The Compleat Spinster Poet

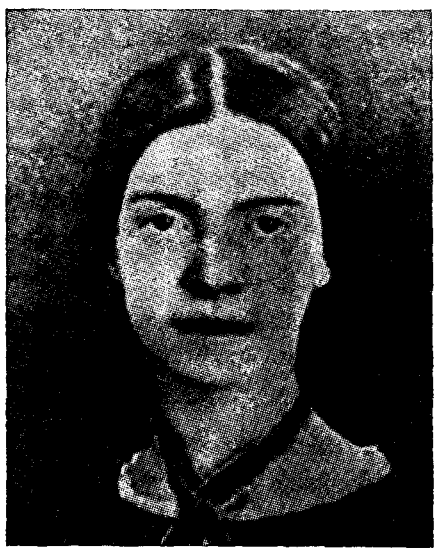
"The Poems of Emily Dickinson, Including Variant Readings Critically Compared with All Known Manuscripts," edited by Thomas H. Johnson *(Harvard University Press. 3 vols. 1,334 pp. $25), is the first truly complete collection of her poetical writings. It is reviewed here by Louis Untermeyer, who has edited "A Treasury of Great Poems" and a number of other anthologies.*

By Louis Untermeyer

THE appearance of Thomas H. Johnson's three-volume compilation of "The Poems of Emily Dickinson," the first authentic and really Complete Poems, is a major publishing event. A carefully collated and scholarly text has been awaited, demanded, and needed for years. The present publication is a cumulative response to that demand. It is far more than an important revision; it is a rediscovery.

Emily Dickinson's publishing debut was tentative in the extreme. The material available for publication was either scattered or nervously guarded; the editing, when it was finally undertaken, was unsure and often inaccurate. Emily Dickinson's first volume was published posthumously more than half a century ago; it was succeeded by two other little books in 1891 and 1896, edited by Thomas Wentworth Higginson and Mabel Loomis Todd. Almost twenty years passed before another collection of Emily Dickinson's poems was issued. This was "The Single Hound," which was followed by "Further" and "Unpublished" poems, all of which were edited by Emily Dickinson's niece, Martha Dickinson Bianchi, who inherited the poet's estate. There were also "Collected" and "Complete" editions that were not only incomplete but revealed many probable misreadings of the original texts, obvious inconsistencies, and more than a few glaring errors. Deciphering and transcribing the manuscripts was admittedly difficult. Emily Dickinson wrote more than 1,700 poems, of which only seven were printed, anonymously, surreptitiously, and by stealth, during her lifetime. The rest were carefully secreted. Many had been written on the backs of envelopes and brown paper bags from the grocer, but more of them had been copied on sheets of note paper, folded, and stitched together into packets or "fascicules." There were many puzzling pencillings, possible variants, indications that the poet had not decided which word should stand as her final choice. The eventual choice was determined by her editors who, sometimes carelessly, sometimes arbitrarily, chose the wrong word, changed a phrase, euphonized a purposely imperfect rhyme, and "corrected" a construction in the same way that Rimsky-Korsakoff "refined" Moussorgsky. After the volumes began to appear misunderstandings ensued. There were jealous quarrels, a bitter family feud, and a lawsuit; manuscripts, loaned and snatched back, were hidden and withheld; comparison of the scattered versions was impossible.

The situation remained complicated for a long time. Martha Dickinson Bianchi died in 1943, leaving her material and all publication rights to her companion and onetime collaborator, Alfred Leete Hampson. Mabel Loomis Todd had died in 1932, leaving more than 650 unpublished poems to her daughter, Millicent Todd Bingham, who published the poems in "Bolts of Melody." In the same year Mrs. Bingham issued "Ancestors' Brocades," a graphic though naturally partisan report of the Dickinson-Todd imbroglio and a further evidence of the need of a definitive examination of the entire corpus of Emily Dickinson's writings. In 1950, sixty-four years after the poet's death, Gilbert Holland Montague provided funds for the purchase of Emily Dickinson's poems, letters, and other papers, and the priceless collection was presented to Harvard University Library. A bequest by the late Waldron Phoenix Belknap, Jr., created The Belknap Press devoted to scholarly publishing. The scholar chosen to undertake the preparation of the definitive edition of the Dickinson poems was Thomas H. Johnson, who had discovered and edited the hitherto unknown poems of Edward Taylor, a true "metaphysical" and the most remarkable American poet of the seventeenth century. The three volumes under consideration are the gratifying outcome of a long-deferred and difficult project.



Emily Dickinson—"Wayward rhymes."

JOHNSON begins his work with a section entitled "Creating the Poems." While not primarily biographical—the definitive biography is still to come—it is, more than a conjectural estimate, a plausible explanation of the relation of the life of the poet as recluse to the life of the spinster as poet. Weighing the contentions of other biographers, Johnson concludes (quite properly, this reviewer believes) that two men—both "unattainable"—were her inspiration and her despair. The double grief ("I never lost as much but twice"), the aftermath of loss and the emptiness of a lonely life are sounded in the poignant lines beginning "My life closed twice before its close" and ending:

> Parting is all we know of heaven
> And all we need of hell.

The first creative stimulus was supplied by Benjamin Newton, an assistant in her father's law office. Emily at nineteen had written a few whimsical valentines and other conventional verses; Newton, ten years her senior, became her first "preceptor." A non-conforming intellectual and an ardent reader of unorthodox books, he instilled in his young admirer a love of the unusual—she was particularly appreciative of a gift of Emerson's "Poems," a book which opened new horizons and helped shape her half-cryptic, half-clairvoyant style. Newton died in 1853, a few days after his thirty-second birthday, and Emily remembered him not only as a provocative mentor, who taught her "what to read, what authors to admire, and what was most grand or beautiful in nature," but also as "the friend who taught me Immortality."

The second and far greater influ-

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ence, her very "dearest friend," "the fugitive whom to know was life," was the Reverend Charles Wadsworth, who, all unknowing, brought her life to a kind of close and her poetry to its highest pitch. He was about forty when Emily, not quite twenty-four, heard him preach at the Arch Street Presbyterian Church in Philadelphia. In April 1854 Emily, accompanied by her sister Lavinia, was returning from Washington, after a three-week visit with her father, then a member of Congress. It is now certain that she immediately fell in love with the minister; it is equally certain that there is no foundation for the often-repeated gossip that an elopement was proposed, considered, and nobly rejected. Wadsworth, a devoted servant of God, was married and the head of a family; he probably was unaware of the fervor he had aroused in the heart of a listener who had been schooled to repress any outward show of deep emotion. There were no more than two or three meetings. One occurred five years after the Philadelphia visit; another in 1880, two years before his death. But Emily felt herself irrevocably bound, "ceded," "pledged," and committed to a hopeless love. In 1861, when she learned that Wadsworth had accepted a call to occupy a San Francisco pulpit, she was filled with terror. Johnson believes that this was the great crisis in her life and that, surcharged with pent-up feelings, she wrote her most anguished and breathlessly intense poems, as well as other greatly observant and penetrating quatrains, from her thirty-first to her thirty-fifth year. "To Emily Dickinson, Wadsworth's removal was terrifying because she feared she might never be able to control her emotions without his guidance." But it is also likely that Emily Dickinson's power to express and sublimate a desperate and even violent longing was released at the very beginning of her devotion. How much of her agonized poetry is the result of experience and how much the result of imagination can never be determined; it is apparent that the poet herself could not draw the line between the wish and the act, the almost inconsequential event and the palpitating dramatization of it. "When I state myself as the representative of the verse it does not mean me but a supposed person," she wrote to Higginson in 1862.

THERE were, it seems, always two selves involved in the poetry: the suffering woman struggling to outlive an overwhelming abnegation—"At leisure is the soul that gets a staggering blow"—and the "supposed person" who concealed her defeat from everyone and revealed it only on little scraps of paper stitched together and carefully tucked away. The utterance of grief takes on frightened and sometimes frightening accents; the poet (or "the supposed person") conceives herself as the supremest sufferer. She calls herself "Queen" and "Empress" of Calvary—Johnson notes that in the poems which he considers written in 1862 (the year after Wadsworth went to California) the word Calvary occurs nine times. Johnson also maintains that it was at this time that she began to dress exclusively in white, being both humble and proud of her "white election."

The poetry emphasizes the double burden of the recluse and her *alter ego*. Sometimes the pain is explicit; it is stated nakedly in the poem which begins:

> I cannot live with you.
> It would be life,
> And life is over there . . .

Chiefly, however, the feeling is that of a recurring dream, a dream which grants the unconsummated ecstasy—"The vision pondered long/So plausible becomes/That I esteem the fiction reel." Happy self-deluding fantasies and pathetic wish-fulfillments struggle through such startling stanzas as those beginning: "Wild Nights! Wild Nights!" "Come slowly, Eden!" "I gave myself to him," "I am ashamed—I hide—What right have I do be a Bride," "I'm wife—I've finished that, that other state," "Mine by the right of the white election," "Forever at his side to walk—Two lives, One Being now," and:

> A Wife at daybreak I shall be—
> Sunrise, hast thou a flag for me?
> At midnight I am but a Maid—
> How short it takes to make it
> Bride!

Johnson's first section is further enriched by an examination of a need almost as great as the woman's need of love: the poet's need of an audience. It traces the course of her correspondence with Higginson, his failure to appreciate her quality, and his belated recognition of her genius after her death. It makes clear her consequent refusal to submit her work for publication which she regarded as "the auction of the mind"; and, most important, it shows the workings of her creative processes.

The second section, entitled "Editing the Poems," is a detailed documentation of the troubles attending the preparation, editing, and publication of her volumes, the first of which did not appear until four years after the poet died. Johnson begins it with Lavinia's discovery of the vast amount of poetry which her sister had secreted in a locked box, her anxiety to "justify" Emily, regarded by many as the town oddity, and her search for someone to put the sixty little "volumes" into publishable shape. The developing story, for it is essentially a narrative rather than an essay, shows Lavinia doling out small batches of the "volumes" or packets to Mabel Loomis Todd; Professor Todd numbering the packages; the decision to enlist the aid of Higginson because Emily had once turned to him for encouragement; and the subsequent series of hesitancies, misgivings, and editorial compromises. Higginson's taste was conventional—Emily could scarcely have found a critic less sympathetic to experiments—and he did what seemed best for the reputation of the dead poet. The alterations which occur in the first three volumes of "Poems" were, writes Johnson, "deliberate and conscientiously made in an effort, however misguided it seems in retrospect, to give the poetry of Emily Dickinson the sort of finish which the sensibilities of the time were thought to demand." For example, one of the quaintest of Emily Dickinson's nature poems concluded:

> The grass so little has to do,
> I wish I were a hay.

"It cannot go in so," Higginson informed Mrs. Todd. "Everybody would say that 'hay' is a collective noun requiring the definite article. Nobody can call it 'a' hay!" Not until thirty-four years later, when "Collected Poems" appeared, was the last line correctly rendered. Others had objected to her wayward rhymes even more than her disregard of grammatical conventions. The first stanza of a now-famous poem was originally written in this form:

> I taste a liquor never brewed
> From Tankards scooped in Pearl—
> Not all the Frankfort Berries
> Yield such an Alcohol!

But when it was printed anonymously in the *Springfield Republican* it had been changed to conform to standard practice and the version was one which the audacious poet would scarcely have enjoyed:

> I taste a liquor never brewed,
> From tankards scooped in pearl:
> Not Frankfort berries yield the
> sense
> Such a delicious whirl.

Such alterations, contends Johnson, explain her reluctance to show her

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"i am not sure
i
would
put it
quite
that
way."

work to any but her best friends, to withdraw from public notice—"How dreary to be Somebody! How public, like a frog!"—and finally to refuse publication altogether.

THERE are two other introductions to the poems. The first, "Characteristics of the Handwriting," is a technical analysis of Emily Dickinson's chirography, showing the factors and changes by which the poet's handwriting may be recognized in periods from her twentieth year to the year of her death. This is of primary importance in an attempt to establish the chronology which has been lacking in every edition hitherto published. There are, of course, other ways of deciding on a chronological order, as Johnson explains in "Notes on the Present Text." For one thing there are exact dates in the case of poems enclosed in letters. There are also the results obtained from a study of the stationery. But the chief evidence is the handwriting and the many changes it had undergone in thirty-five years. Although most of the assigned dates must remain approximate, the clues furnish a high degree of reliability and constitute an invaluable piece of pioneering research.

The greater part of the first volume, however, and all the contents of the other two volumes, consist of the poetry itself—1775 poems, including forty-one poems heretofore unpublished. Each poem is given with its complete history: identification of the manuscript, place (or places) of publication, and all the variant readings. The three books, therefore, comprise a variorum text which is unlikely to be challenged. They confirm what admirers of Emily Dickinson have always maintained: that her personal and unique idiom, once thought so eccentric, instead of being haphazard was deliberate; that her extravagances of language were native and precise; and that the wildest metaphors were skilfully controlled. The books prove again how radically our reading taste has changed since the time when a famous editor and novelist, Arlo Bates, concluded that it seemed "unwise to perpetuate Miss Dickinson's poems . . . They are generally devoid of true poetical qualities," and when even Higginson complained that "though he admired the singular talent of Emily Dickinson, he hardly thought enough could be found to make an even semi-conventional volume."

With all its inestimable features, this three-volume variorum edition is two works which will be appreciated mostly by scholars, source-seekers, literary historians, and students of the creative process. It is time now for the publication of a book long overdue and greatly needed. It is to be hoped that the publishers will soon issue an inexpensive but representative "Selected Poems of Emily Dickinson" in one volume.

Bunyan to Joyce

"The English Novel," by Walter Allen *(E. P. Dutton. 454 pp. $4.75), is a short history by a British critic. reviewed by Professor Harvey Curtis Webster of the University of Louisville.*

By Harvey Curtis Webster

THE trouble with books about the English novel is that they are written about something that does not exist. There are English novelists, more than a hundred thousand of them, and English novels, more than a million of them. What the literary historian, who could not and should not have read all of the novelists and novels, abstracts becomes *his* conception of the English novel which, in turn, dictates his selection for *his* history. Inevitably his conception and selection is governed by what he has wisely and unwisely chosen to read of the abstractions of others, by the intellectual climate in which he matures, by his own life and character—even by chance. Like a box within a box within a box the process stretches backwards *ad infinitum.*

This is not said in deprecation of literary historians bound by finitude as inevitably as you and I. There are good, bad, mediocre, and excellent histories of "the novel." Among them, there is a good deal of agreement. No writer on the novel, so far as I know, ignores Henry James (though he may misunderstand and pillory him). Herbert Muller, Joseph Warren Beach, E. M. Forster, Pelham Edgar, Robert Morse Lovett and Helen Hughes, F. R. Leavis—to name more or less at random—probably have as many points of agreement as of disagreement.

Yet how they differ! For Mr. Leavis the English novel is almost exclusively the "great tradition" of "total significance of a profoundly serious kind" he finds in Jane Austen, George Eliot, James, Conrad, and Lawrence. For some "academic" historians Fanny Burney, G. P. R. James, Fielding, and Richardson deserve an equal number of pages and pats on the back. In their very different ways many books on the "novel" written in England are admirable guides. But the reader should beware of each of them and be on guard against back-scratching, snobbery, following of fashion, and the narrowing effect of a dogmatically held esthetic that distorts interpretation and cramps selection. Beware, indeed, of my praise of Walter Allen's new book, "The English Novel," for it happens that my taste and my knowledge predispose me to like what the

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book says about novels and novelists.

In his very intelligent introduction that defines his bias, Mr. Allen quotes approvingly Lionel Trilling:

> For our time the most effective agent of the moral imagination has been the novel of the last two hundred years . . . its greatness and its practical usefulness lay in its unremitting work of involving the reader himself in the moral life, inviting him to put his own motives under examination, suggesting that reality is not as his conventional education has led him to see it. It taught us, as no other genre ever did, the extent of human variety and the value of this variety. It was the literary form to which the emotions of understanding and forgiveness were indigenous, as if by the definition of the form itself.

So, AS he puts it in his own words, "in judging a novel we are faced with the task of assessing not only the author's ability to create characters . . . but also with the values inherent in the characters and their behavior. It is this latter which enables us to say that Jane Austen or Conrad is a greater novelist than such writers of the second rank as Trollope and Bennett, for all their generosity, breadth of canvas, or fidelity to the surface of observed life." As these two statements imply, Mr. Allen's "The English Novel" is based upon a severe sense of values that includes the moral without excluding the esthetic. He considers the good novelist a soldier in the fight against inhumanity, sloppy emotionalism, conventionality for its own sake, ignorant dogmatism, and uninformed unintelligence.

Mr. Allen's English novel starts with Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress" and ends with the novels of Joyce and Lawrence (he promises a later book on those who came later). His "greats" are not astonishingly different from those others have chosen before him: Richardson, Fielding, Jane Austen, Scott ("one of the great imperfect novelists"), Dickens ("the greatest genius among our novelists"), George Eliot, Hardy, James, Conrad. Because we're still too close to them, he's not as certain about the greatness of Joyce and Lawrence, although they are still "the advance guard," innovators more recent novelists are still busy digesting. About all of these he writes perceptively and unpretentiously, seeing with the ease of a well-educated Englishman how BBC, Shakespeare, Flaubert, Chaucer, poetry, essays, Dostoievsky, and the detective novel are all parts of a greater cultural whole. Richardson, though great, discovered "one of the most potent formulas of the best-selling novel . . . procrastinated rape." Jane Austen's novels are a "feminization of Fielding." Trollope's good novels are superior soap-opera. Hardy and Lawrence are nearly akin; so are Charlotte Bronte and Dostoievsky, Virginia Woolf and Proust, Flaubert and Joyce. Etc.

Also, thank Mr. Allen, ample justice is done to those who are not great but very palatable (like vitamins, minor novelists are a necessary part of the intelligent reader's diet). Too few now read Mrs. Gaskell, Smollett, Sterne, Peacock, Gissing, Marryat, Le Fanu, Bennett, Maria Edgeworth (to name minimally). If "The English Novel" is as widely read as I hope it will be, many more will. They'll discover something of the delight of "Finnegans Wake" in Smollett's "Humphrey Clinker" ("We were yesterday three kiple chined, by the grease of God, in the holy bonds of matter-money."). And the exaggerated Victorianism of the Marryat character who said she'd take "a lilly turkey bosom, if you please."

Of the books that survey the English novel Mr. Allen's seems to me to be the best. A good novelist who is inadequately known in America, a regular critic for *New Statesman and Nation* and *The Listener*, he knows and writes well. Small quarrels I have with him. He doesn't mention the delightful novels of W. H. Mallock, or the fine satirical fiction of Grant Allen. He seems to me somewhat fuzzy about E. M. Forster and certainly inadequately appreciative, somewhat overboard about Richardson, too little appreciative of Virginia Woolf. But these are minor and possibly unjustifiable quarrels. Read Mr. Allen and you will discover a quantity of good reading that is better than what you'll probably discover among the books of this year and the next—most of it as modern as human nature.

"Redeem" Education?

Continued from page 31

of these groups would progress through the elementary school at its own rate, devouring the academic curricula. Irrespective of the grade in which the pupil is enrolled "at the onset of puberty all students will be transferred from the elementary school to high school. This transfer we may assume will come at the end of the school year, in which the student reaches the chronological age of twelve." (Surely Professor Bestor knows that the onset of puberty for each sex may vary as much as three years and that girls usually reach puberty one to two years earlier than boys!) When a pupil does not master the academic curriculum for the "track" to which he is assigned he is transferred to another group at a lower level. Moreover, a pupil who achieves above his group is transferred to a higher level. The secondary academic curriculum for pupils of superior intelligence would begin in the fifth grade in the elementary school (as presently organized). For slow learners the elementary academic curriculum would continue into the secondary school.

In the secondary school the use of mental age in grouping pupils would be abandoned. Differentiation among pupils in the academic curriculum would be made by varying the pupil's course load—most intellectually superior pupils would take four subjects while the slow learner might take only one subject. In addition Professor Bestor would set up a dual system with separate administrations. One administrator would administer the academic program—science, mathematics, history, English, and foreign languages. The other would be responsible for the "less respectable" curricula which Professor Bestor refers to continuously as "vocational" courses. At the age of sixteen there would be a high-school commencement for all pupils. This means that some pupils who had barely completed the seventh grade in the academic sequence as well as some who had completed the twelfth grade would receive a high-school diploma. However, this diploma "would not be the key unlocking the door of the university."

Let us consider a few of the reasons why this proposal is undesirable and unworkable. In the first place, the plan places far too much emphasis upon mental age as the determinant of academic learning. Psychological research has proven, beyond doubt, that emotional, social, and physiological growth factors have an

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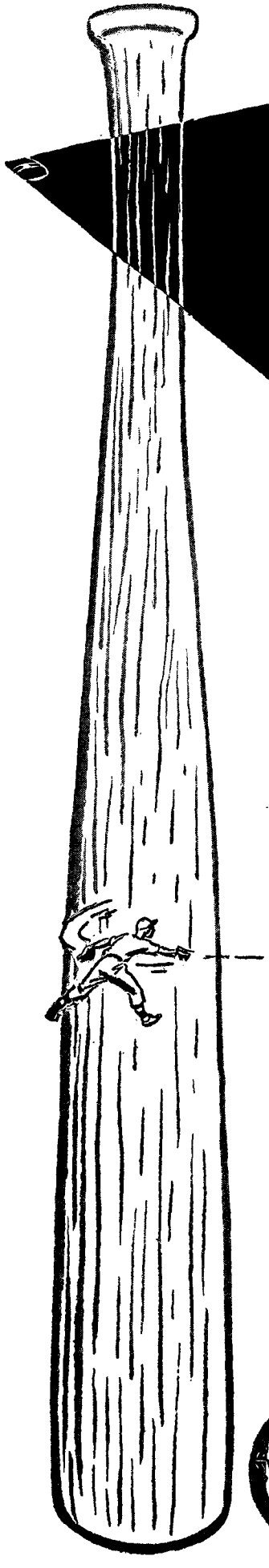

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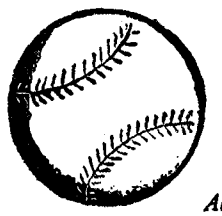

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extraordinary impact upon learning. Regardless of the factor used in the homogeneous grouping the range of achievement will be great and the spread will increase as the class progresses from grade to grade. With all of these growth factors operating, the range of achievement in each of Professor Bestor's mental age groups would be so great that transfer of pupils from one group to another would likely become the rule rather than the exception.

Second, these transfers would not only cause confusion within classes but they would result in a wide range in the chronological ages of pupils in the same class—quite possibly as much as five years.

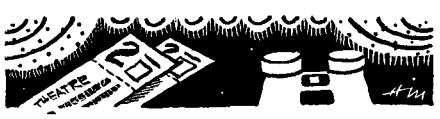
Third, the plan could not be administered or made to function in small schools which represent a large majority of the public schools. It is even very doubtful that the plan could be instituted in large schools.

Fourth, contrary to Professor Bestor's contention the cost of education under this plan would be increased tremendously. Not only would there be a need for many more classes at each grade level, but the plan would also necessitate smaller classes.

Fifth, the plan would stigmatize the less able pupil and place the halo of the "chosen few" upon the intellectually superior. With this condition existing motivation for learning would be at its lowest ebb.

Sixth, the plan would make the academic curriculum the only "respectable" one. Many of the so-called "vocational" subjects would be taken without credit. The fine and practical arts (which he hardly mentions) would assume a secondary place in the school program.

SPACE does not permit a complete analysis and evaluation of this organization plan and other equally fantastic ideas and concepts proposed by Professor Bestor. Discriminating readers who are interested in continued improvement and expansion of educational opportunities for *all* children will recognize that Professor Bestor is primarily interested in the education of a comparatively few intellectually superior children. They will recognize that even for these children his program is narrow and inadequate. Moreover, they will sense that his organizational plan and suggested curriculum would result in an increase in drop-outs and deny many more pupils than at present the opportunity to achieve a high-school education.



BROADWAY POSTSCRIPT

Sunshine But No Flowers

WHEN an author of such widespread erudition and amiable genius as Thornton Wilder announces that he has written a play which is "a groping toward a statement of immortality acceptable to those who are not willing to accept the conventional conception of it" he deserves our grateful attention. And the first thing one must say after witnessing the unveiling of "A Life in the Sun" at the Edinburgh Festival is that we have felt him getting warm in his game of Pin-the-Tail-on-the-Infinite.

Taking some Greek legends—mainly Euripides's "Alcestis"—he has retold an old tale in deliberately simple and nonpoetic language, and in this retelling has brought us all nearer the solstice of the Gods and Man. He begins with the impending marriage of Alcestis to Admetus (twelve years before the action covered by Euripides). Alcestis is about to desert her bridegroom to go off and live "in the real." She complains:

> Any woman can be wife and mother; and hundreds have been queens. *My* husband. *My* children. To center your life upon these five or six . . . to die a thousand deaths at the smallest misfortune that may befall *my* husband, *my* children in the day's life. . . . To be bound and shut in with everything that concerns them . . . each day filled—so filled—with the thousand occupations that help or comfort them, that finally one sinks into the grave loved and honored but as ignorant as the day one was born.

At this point Teiresias arrives from Delphi with a message that Apollo is coming to live in Admetus's household for a year, but that he will be disguised as one of four herdsmen. Alcestis questions the herdsmen in an effort to find out which is Apollo. The first is a miraculous healer, but is disqualified because he on occasion insensitively refused to treat the needy; the second has a supernatural sense of direction, but is much too filthy to be a God; the third is a marvelous singer of ballads but is drinking himself to death; and the fourth is a man who makes wonderful sense, but is not even sure that the Gods exist at all. The conclusion is that Apollo may be divided up among several people including Admetus himself, and Alcestis undergoes a conversion in which she promises Admetus not only to go through with the marriage but to live for him as though every moment she were ready to die for him.

Now we are whisked on a dozen years to Mr. Wilder's own much altered version of the Euripides play.

Admetus is dying from an accidental knife wound when Alcestis receives a message from the Gods to the effect that Admetus can be saved if someone will die in his place. The herdsman who inflicted the wound asks to die because

> A death . . . laid on me by Delphi would be a death which led on to something . . . it would save me from that other death which I dread and which all men dread . . . the mere ceasing to be.

However it is Alcestis who dies. She leaves orders that she wants Admetus to marry again and that Hercules, who is on his way to visit the court, not be told of her death. After a tender farewell scene with Admetus, who is still ignorant of her sacrifice, she dies.

Hercules arrives drunk, on his return from slaying the Hydra. When Admetus compliments him Hercules replies, "It wasn't easy." He construes this as evidence that he cannot be the son of Zeus, for if he were any task should be easy. He is, however, worried about his parentage and wants to ask Alcestis about it. He reveals that once he attempted to attack her by force, and that she had forgiven him. He tells Admetus admiringly that only the strong and the pure can forgive and at the same time remember. When told of Alcestis's death he descends to the Underworld and with the help of Apollo brings her back.

Now we move on twenty years. Admetus has been murdered. Alcestis is a slave in the court of Agis. And Thessaly is suffering from a terrible plague. There is a dialogue between Apollo and Death in which Apollo explains that he can bring back from the dead only those who have offered their lives for others, and announces that he is killing thousands with the plague now because "only so will they remember the story" of Alcestis.

Suddenly Alcestis's escaped son returns to avenge his father's murder, but is dissuaded by Alcestis, who tells him, "A man who has known the joys

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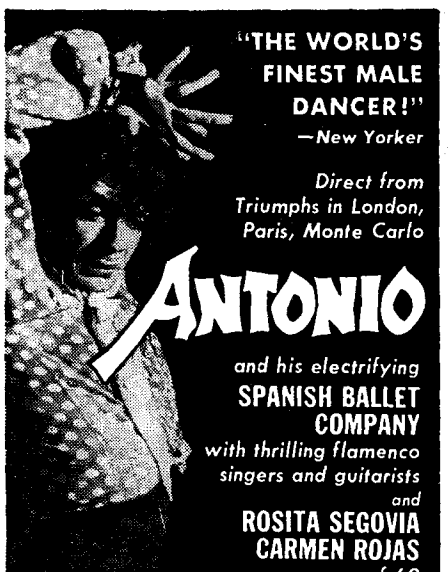

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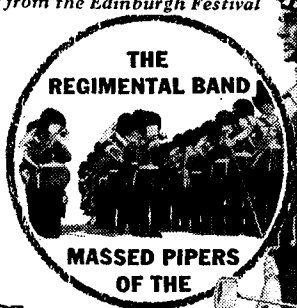

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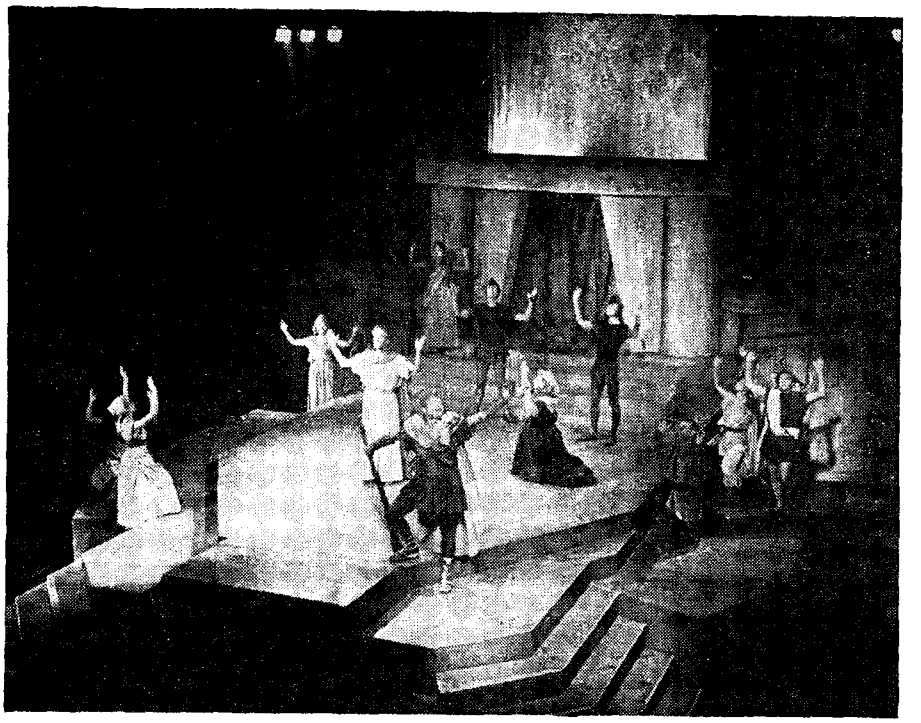

—*Scott Brothers.*

"... a prose counterpoint to a strong and well-established legend."

of revenge may never know any other joy."

Agis's twelve-year-old daughter, Laodamia, dies of the plague, shouting "Father help me," and the brokenhearted Agis does not understand. Alcestis tells him,

> The last bitterness of death . . . is the despair that one's life has been without meaning. . . . Love is not the meaning. It is one of the signs that there is a meaning . . . through Laodamia's suffering you will learn this meaning.

Finally Alcestis goes off, the first in a great number who will not have the ending of a grave. As she does she murmurs the lines from James Joyce's "Finnegans Wake": "All the thousands of days . . . and the world of cares." She looks up at Apollo and asks, "And whom do I thank for all the happiness?" To which Apollo replies, "Those who have loved one another do not ask one another that question . . . Alcestis."

As admirable as all this is, "A Life in the Sun" has woeful drawbacks as a piece of theatre. It is a trilogy instead of one direct play. The inordinate amount of fresh action and homilies crammed into the last act is confusing. And the most crucial difficulty of all is that having chosen the ballad form, Mr. Wilder has refused either the excitement of suspense or the grand style, in which emotion is heightened by poetry. Rather he has written a prose counterpoint to a strong and well-established legend, which makes the comments more interesting than the main actions.

In producing this on the Assembly Hall open stage (the primitive ancestor of the Stratford, Ontario, model) Tyrone Guthrie appears to have worked in a somewhat different direction from the author's intention. In his emphasis on ensemble and groupings one misses worse than ever the poetry Mr. Wilder has been so careful not to write. Irene Worth, who plays Alcestis, and Robert Hardy, who undertook the role of Admetus (after Montgomery Clift and Michael Goodliffe had withdrawn), both pay the penalty that most stars do in a Guthrie open-stage production. This despite what might be highly creditable performances in a conventional production. On the other hand, the rollicking Hercules as performed by Rupert Davies emerges more strongly as he has the advantage of being allowed to move about more, and of an eccentric characterization. Likewise Michael David, who as Apollo is permitted to speak from a balcony, becomes most effective.

Since Mr. Wilder has written "A Life in the Sun" with the open stage and Dr. Guthrie in mind the relatively unexciting result of this collaboration may, it is hoped, be a step in teaching both of these gifted artists lessons that will make possible the further development of this wonderful kind of theatre. Right now they are walking in the wake of Tanya Moiseiwitsch, whose designs for this as for previous open-stage productions continue to be a joy.

—Henry Hewes.

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SR GOES TO THE MOVIES

By the Light of a Western Star

AUDIE MURPHY, movie star and war hero, is utterly deceptive on both counts. His smooth, boyish face and slow, quiet Texas drawl belie his military accomplishments. He looks more like the Eagle Scout with the most merit badges than the American soldier with the most combat decorations. On the screen Audie has moved through dozens of routine Westerns without batting an eye or breathing heavily under the stress of deep emotion, his trim, lithe figure more than equal to any action exigencies posed by the story, his clear, immobile features obviously unequal to anything beyond the most rudimentary dramatic demands. Watching him one wonders how this guy ever became a movie actor. And yet, as those who saw him play the Youth in "Red Badge of Courage" will remember, his work is agreeably free of pretense. There are a sincerity and integrity to his performances that carry through the sham and make-believe, the drama and derrin'-do.

Curiously, it is these qualities that lend credence to Universal-International's full-scale treatment of his life, **"To Hell and Back."** Murphy wrote the book, a memoir of his experiences as infantryman in the famed Third Infantry Division, shortly after the close of World War II, at a time when the luster of his medals was beginning to dull a bit, and long before he began his climb to fame as a Western star. Like the book, the film closes with his Army career. There is no hint here that Universal is apotheosizing one of its own. And if its opening smacks a bit too strongly of Horatio Alger—with young Audie being the man in his large, impoverished family, shooting rabbits for food, and hiring out at $14 a week to pay the rent—the chances are that the real story was even more distressing. It's just that screenwriter Gil Doud seems to have the knack of turning a true and essentially human situation into something that appears forced, familiar, and cliché.

These same qualities color and mar many of the wartime scenes as well, particularly those that take place beyond the range of small-arms fire. But whenever the script touches on combat—the landing at Salerno, the fierce fighting at the Volturno River, the merciless pounding our troops took at Anzio, the bloody advances into Germany itself—the screen quickens with the impulse of real events realistically handled. Murphy, of course, is in screen center through most of these actions, leading patrols, cheering his comrades, rushing fiercely at the enemy with guns blazing. And yet because of his own innate modesty he never seems to be playing the ordinary Hollywood hot-shot war hero (or, worse, himself distended to the dimensions of a Hollywood hot-shot war hero). Murphy emerges as a good soldier, a good American, and—almost in spite of the script—a thoroughly admirable, likable young man. The exteriors, filmed at the Yakima Firing Center, the Army's artillery range in Washington, duplicate to an amazing degree the terrain of southern Italy, France, and the Colmar Pocket. In fact, only one aspect of the film will dismay the true combat veteran: despite the vastness of the CinemaScope screen Audie and his combat patrols have a lamentable tendency to bunch up. One shell, one burst of machine-gun fire and no Audie—and no picture.

* * *

In **"Rebound"** (Columbia) Stewart Granger plays a reprehensible fellow who, having poisoned his wife for her money, finds himself in the feline clutches of Jean Simmons, his chambermaid, who knows all. Anyone else might have considered himself truly fortunate in such circumstances, but not this one. He has in mind a fancier, more advantageous alignment, and isn't averse to an extra murder or two to achieve it. All of these preposterous doings, set in London at the turn of the century, rattle along in the Dorothy Reid-Lenore Coffee screenplay with the speed of a badly greased hansom-cab. Miss Simmons, lovely as ever, seems understandably at a loss to discover some clue to the character she has been asked to portray and appears alternately demure, imperious, sly, love-sick, and demented; while Granger's gentlemanly rascal is so full of meaningful side-glances it's amazing that no one outside of the audience ever caught on to just what he was up to. But the photography, with its beautiful pearly grays and deep, glowing reds, and the rich Edwardian furnishings and costumes, steal the film from both plot and performers. —ARTHUR KNIGHT.

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MUSIC TO MY EARS

Egk in Mozartland

SALZBURG, AUSTRIA.

TWO features characterize the artistic policy of the Salzburg Festival and give it a special significance among the countless festivals that have sprung up in postwar Europe. The primary mission of Salzburg is to produce outstanding performances of the works of Mozart, who was born there, and for the performance of whose works a considerable tradition exists. The second is to present each year a contemporary opera in the best possible performance.

This year's program included two Mozart operas. "The Magic Flute" was magnificent in the open-air Felsenreitschule. Not so "The Abduction from the Seraglio." This delightful work, containing some of Mozart's most enchanting music, was given a thoroughly routine performance in the Landestheater.

This year's new work was the German composer Werner Egk's "Irish Legend." Egk's most successful work to date is the ballet "Abraxas," in which the Faust legend is given some new twists. Abraxas is a "wild" piece, in which the demonical element predominates. In the ballet the powers of darkness have the last word; the moral outcome is, so to speak, negative. In "Irish Legend" he wanted to demonstrate that the freedom of choice exercised by the good individual could confound and conquer the powers of evil.

The text, by Egk himself, is based on Yeats's play "Countess Cathleen," which is in turn derived from a traditional Irish folk tale. Egk's version, however, differs from Yeats's in many details, and the text is practically unrelated. The story in Egk's version is briefly as follows. In the first scene the demons, lesser employes of the Devil, meet in the forest for consultation. Their leader, the tiger, instructs the others (two owls, a buzzard, a snake, and two hyenas disguised as merchants) that their task is to trap human beings into selling their souls to the Devil. This is to be accomplished through the creation of hunger and fear. The second scene takes place in the huge house of the wealthy Cathleen. Aleel, a poet, sings of their mutual happiness and undying love. Two shepherds enter and relate that an inexplicable drought has caused the death of all livestock and the ruin of all the crops in the land. Cathleen orders her entire fortune sacrificed in order to import food from abroad. Aleel urges her to flee the country with him. She refuses, and he swears to remain at her side.

As the third scene opens the hyena-merchants report that many have sold their souls but that a considerable resistance is developing as the result of Cathleen's aid. Enraged, the tiger resolves to destroy Cathleen. He orders the hyenas to fetch Aleel, who is brought before the demons in a state of sleep walking. Through the power of suggestion, and through the conjuring-up of the apparition of the eternally-damned Faust, Aleel is persuaded that his oath to remain with Cathleen was sacrilegious and that he is betraying his own poet's soul by not fleeing. In the next scene, again in Cathleen's house, the demons secretly plunder her treasure-vaults and rob her of her last material resources. Aleel appears and announces his immediate departure despite the entreaties of Cathleen.

In the final scene, at a crossroads in a desolated landscape, the demons are in the process of purchasing the last few remaining souls when Cathleen appears. She offers her own soul in exchange for all the others; the demons, knowing the value of such a soul to the Devil, accept her offer. The remorseful Aleel returns and searches for Cathleen. He learns what has occurred, and in a vision he sees her on her way to the realm of the damned. Suddenly angels appear and tear her away from the demons. Aleel vows that he will make atonement by living on in loneliness, strengthened by the power of Cathleen's sacrifice.

EGK'S avowed purpose was to present in "Irish Legend" a parable that would carry a message to the present-day world. "One can recognize in the timeless symbol of the demons those powers that in our time, through methodical planning and organised force, would deprive humanity of its sense of responsibility and its freedom of decision," he writes. "Nor is it difficult to discern that the 'evocation of the dream' is connected with modern misuse of the power of suggestion and that the treacherous reference to the spiritual authority of Faust corresponds to certain methods of modern propaganda, which has developed to perfection the art of lying with the truth and for which the most sacred concepts are distorted to achieve the basest results."

It is through the relation of such ethical and moral questions to the problems confronting the world today that Egk feels his opera to be contemporary in spirit and content. Asserting his musical independence, he adds: "If modernity were bound up with specific mannerisms and processes, or if it depended on howtowing to snobbish sensationalism or on following the dictates of a musical *haute couture* that changes its models from season to season and from festival to festival, then "Irish Legend" would have nothing to do with our time. . . ." Egk also refers to twelve-tone technique, which he deplores in principle as being restrictive and unfertile. His own style is indeed far removed from the principles of twelve-tone composition, being tonally and harmonically conceived, employing little counterpoint.

Egk has succeeded very well indeed in developing from this Celtic folk tale a theme and a dramatic action that are universal in their implications, clear in meaning and thoroughly contemporary in regard to the problem raised. He does this straightforwardly and with dramatic intensity, combining the moral symbolism of a mystery play with the directness of effective theatre.

The music, expert though it is from the technical standpoint, does not fully carry out the promise of the text. Beside passages of considerable originality are others in which the musical inspiration seems to have run dry. The long song of Aleel, for instance, with which the second scene opens, remains a dead spot; and his monologue, with which the opera ends, is equally unconvincing. Despite the obvious efforts of conductor Georg Szell to hold the orchestral volume to a minimum, however, much of the text was unintelligible, covered by the too thick orchestration.

The famous team of Schuh (stage direction) and Neher (stage sets and costumes), without which the postwar achievements of the Salzburg Festival would hardly be conceivable, turned out a brilliant job. Inge Borkh made her Salzburg debut in the difficult role of Cathleen, giving an impeccable accounting of herself both vocally and dramatically. The demons, headed by Walter Berry as the tiger, were most effective, as were the two merchants (Max Lorenz and Oskar Czerwenka). Special mention must be made of the silent and omnipresent snake (Maria Litto), which (or who) writhed incessantly and most satisfactorily. For the precision and for the *ésprit* that marked the entire performance all credit to the authoritative conducting of Szell.

—EVERETT HELM.

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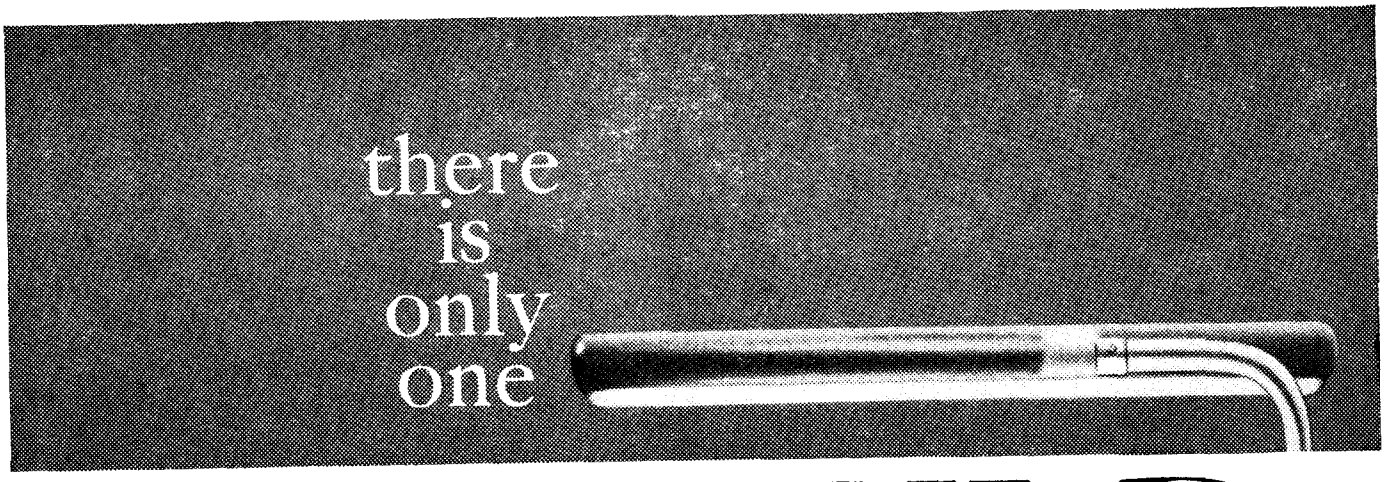

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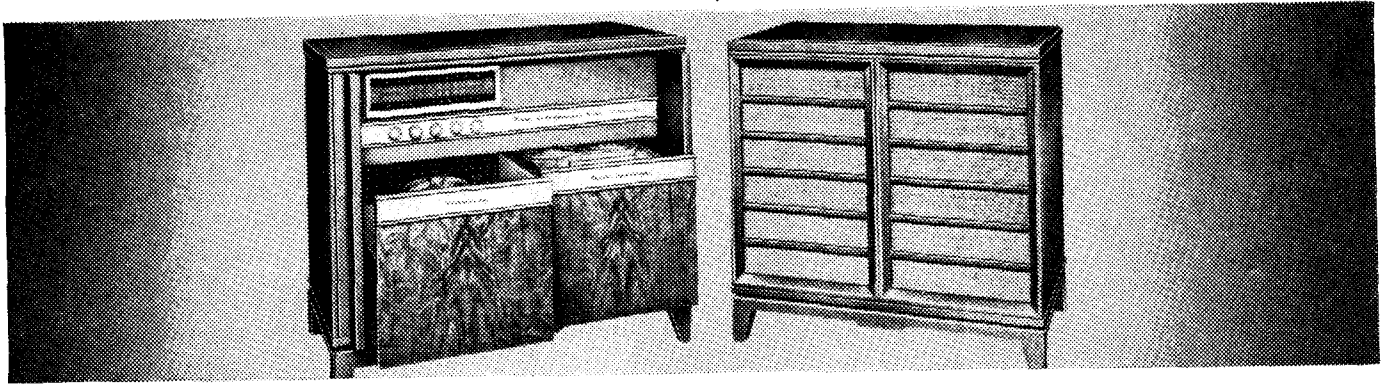

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TV AND RADIO

TV in Erewhon

"TELEVISION exists in the director's mind," a friend of mine insists (he is a veteran of both radio and TV). This man is a gifted composer-conductor, an artist of taste and musicianship. He furnishes the musical scores (however few the instrumentalists permitted by the budgets) for several well-known dramatic shows. Cigarette loosely-lipped, eyes intent and solemn behind horn-rims, he fixes you with a troubled gaze. "This fellow," he declares, "who directs my shows; we meet every week at our music conference and he raves, in glowing terms, about how wonderful the show is going to be. The script is thrilling, the actors superb, the sets entrancing. I come to the studio on the day of rehearsal, all excited to see something great, terrific. I look at the monitor in the control room—and nothing. Where is it—the excitement? Ordinary. Believe me, it has happened too many times. I am absolutely convinced. This medium, television, doesn't exist any place else. It's all in their minds—the directors."

Of course, my friend may see dimly—through his bias. There is not much original composing being done by gifted musicians in television. Most of the music backgrounds for dramatic shows are done with records which are spun, stopped, and cued by deft, indispensable technicians. My friend selects such records—a note here, a bar there, an agitato for thirty seconds. He does it with imagination—even wizardry—considering the limitations; but this is poor challenge for a man who, in radio's heyday, commanded living orchestras of sixteen, twenty-four, sometimes thirty musicians, playing thick scores he personally wrote for audio dramas in which the ear of the audience was chief actor. The really suitable mood-matching possibilities of his record library is small; flexible synchronization of individual records to variable tempi of the cast is out of the question.

He dreams of a client mad enough to pay for adequate live music, an original score, custom-tailored to the very tick of suspense. Alas, he dreams in vain! The money (for dramatic programs) that once flowed munificently to the microphone's imaginative ear now runs every drop to the camera's literal eye. "It's what they see that counts, isn't it? Who knows the difference between recorded music and live?" Who, indeed? Across my desk recently came a new audience survey which uncovers again the vacant stare, the indifferent chamber in our national TV living room. Trendex, Inc., is a New York company which measures program popularity for the trade. Occasionally the company issues a Special Report. The last one issued is on Live or Filmed Television Programs. The survey asked of homes viewing television at the time the call was made: 1) What program, please? 2) Is this program live or on film? 3) Do you prefer programs which are live or film productions? 4) If live, Why? 5) If film, Why?

Result: televiewers mostly do know the difference between live and film: 70.8 per cent correctly identified the production as live or film; 9.7 made an incorrect identification; 19.5 did not know. Not too bad. The unawares are within reason. In the preference choice, the "Lives" came out way ahead—51.8 (Hollywood take note). Only 6.0 preferred film. But the "No preference" figure was as high as 42.2. "You see—even though almost half of them do know the difference between live and film—they don't care—one way or the other." When those who preferred live programs were asked why, 23.4 said they didn't know why. And of those who preferred film, 36.0 didn't know why. Perhaps they're just not verbal, and they can't put their subjective reasons into words. Perhaps. The decision-making capacity is fundamental to political democracy. It is equally as vital to our cultural potential. It is cause for end-of-summer sadness that so significant a group of our television audience (as revealed by this one sample) cannot think its way through to an explanation of so simple a choice as TV live or TV film.

LET us not, however, fail to take pleasure in the more affirmative findings of Trendex, Inc., in this special survey. Here are the figures for those who did know why they preferred their television live and their reasons: a) clearer picture—33.3; b) more realistic—23.4; c) more interesting—6.2; d) prefer live actors—3.6; e) better plays—2.7; f) other reasons—7.4. The film fans were not so splintered. Their reasons for preferring film over live TV follow, with the figures: a) More action—13.0; b) Better scenery—30.0; c) More finished production—21.0. The low figure for "Better plays" must be disappointing to the admirers, in the industry, of the East Coast school of live drama (Philco, Studio One, Steel: Chayefsky, Serling, Rose, etc.). Most of the sample group polled, evidently, don't recognize any Madison Avenue superiority over Hollywood and Vine. The "clearer picture" reason—chief in the live preference group—is a good one, but hardly esthetic.

"More realistic" is next in order as the strongest live factor—rather a puzzling reason, when set against film's "better scenery" and "more finished production." None of the live enthusiasts apparently mentioned the trade's chief arguments in this category—the spontaneous elements of instant rapport between actors and audience, of unpredictability and sustained performance. Upon closer examination, the live preference triumph may bring a downbeat. Does the audience prefer TV's unique qualities for the wrong reasons?

Some pre-fall season nights when the quality of programs patiently viewed is at dreary ebb, I think that my friend the composer-conductor is wrong. Television does not exist in the director's mind. It does not even exist in the audience's mind. It's all a live film in the mind of Trendex, Inc.

—ROBERT LEWIS SHAYON.

The Grape Leaf

By Louise Townsend Nicholl

THE grape leaf and its fellow stood
To take the morning sun
Which through it then to grape and wood
In liquid light could run.

A breathing organ, heart or lung
In plant economy,
Shapely and broad the great leaf hung,
Its face away from me.

And on the underside it wore
Such an expanse of pallor,
Some curious property it bore,
A palliative for color.

This was the strange pale page I conned,
The vellum, for translation;
A foreign valor far beyond
The sap's elaboration.

Another juice within the vein
Had flowed and helped to write
The heavenly and spreading skein
Just visible on white;

Calligraphy as ornament,
Of meaning undivined,
But with that glimmer of intent
The leaf was underlined.

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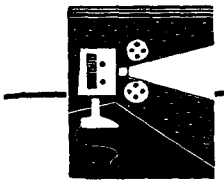

IDEAS ON FILM

Film Books and Films for the Classroom

THE BOOKSHELF:

OUR MODERN ART, THE MOVIES, by Ernest Callenbach, is the first noteworthy American textbook for a movie-discussion course. Eleven sessions are outlined, to be conducted by someone who presumably has little or no background in film history and theory. The sessions are based on showings of such provocative feature films as "The Oxbow Incident," "Battleship Potemkin," "Paisan," "The Navigator" (Keaton), "Les Parents Terribles" (Cocteau), "All the King's Men," "The Informer," and "The Quiet One."

Two short documentaries are included in the programs, "The River" and "Listen to Britain." A session on experimental films (McLaren, Whitney Brothers, Peterson, and Wegee) is the only evening Mr. Callenbach has outlined which I feel runs the risk of falling flat. The others can hardly help but be entertaining and (with the help of Mr. Callenbach's book) illustrative of the complexities of the art of the motion picture. Social awareness is the dominant theme, which is not unexpected in a book published under auspices of an adult-education organization.

Each of the programs is given full chapter treatment in the book, and each chapter is rolling in information and ideas about the specific film (or films), as well as background material of an historical and esthetic nature. All very commendable, except for a head-over-heels abandonment to discussion questions, sometimes as many as five pages of them for one session. Many of the questions are intended to convey ideas to the audience, rather than to extract ideas from them. As a result some are embarrassingly simple, some deceptively complex; some would invoke such personal answers that they could hardly provide a basis for anything except out-and-out argument; some of the questions, I would venture to say, are merely unanswerable.

By the time I had finished the whole book at one sitting (granted that this is not the way it is to be read) thousands of questions were still ringing in my ears. Of an imaginary film I found myself asking myself, "What parts of the film were funny? Did you laugh at them? Would you have laughed if they hadn't been funny? In general do you laugh more at comedies or at newsreels?" And so on.

The main text of the book, however, shows a familiarity with film, an engaging style of writing, and a sincere love of cinematic expression. All this, plus the fact that it is the only book of its kind, more than compensates for its embarrassment of question marks. The bibliography is keenly selective, and informaton about renting 16mm prints of the films is presented in full. "Our Modern Art: The Movies" is a 116-page paperbound book, published by the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 940 East 58th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois. Price: $1 per copy.

HUMAN RELATIONS AND AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS, by Jean D. Grambs, is a seventy-page pamphlet which raises some interesting questions about the ways in which classroom films picture people and their relationships to one another. Published by the National Conference of Christians and Jews (43 West 57th St., New York 19, N. Y.), it is sold at 25¢ per copy.

The state of the modern school and classroom is considered in two small pamphlets recently issued by the National Education Association (1201-16th St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.):

MORE TAKE-HOME LEARNING THROUGH CONTROLLED VENTILATION is a thirty-two-page booklet dealing with some basic problems of air and light control in the audio-visualized classroom. It was prepared with the cooperation of the Minneapolis-Honeywell Regulator Company. **THE SCHOOL WITH BUILT-IN IDEAS** is a reprint of an article that tells how teachers, children, parents, and architects got together to build the kind of school they wanted. Both are recommended for community reading where new schools are being contemplated.

NEW FILMS:

THE SEARCH and **YOU ARE THERE** TV series. An enormous addition to the list of valuable material for our 16mm educational film libraries has suddenly presented itself in the form of these two important filmed television shows. Thirty-nine of the You Are There Series and all twenty-seven of The Search films are now available for ten-year lease from Young America Films. Schools are most likely to be interested in the former series, with titles such as "The First Flight of the Wright Brothers," "The Death of Socrates," "The Emancipation Proclamation," "The Assassination of Julius Caesar," and others almost made to order for the curriculum. They are dramatic reenactments by professional actors, with commentaries read by CBS newsman Walter Cronkite and other members of the CBS news staff.

"The Search," one of the year's big events in educational reporting, spotlights important research projects in progress at various colleges and universities. Despite the device of their using an on-the-spot interviewer-narrator the films stand up on their own—partly because the material they deal with is often fascinating in itself, and partly because of the film skills that went into the production of the films. Among memorable titles in the series (all of which are now available for 16mm use) are "Stuttering and Speech Defects" (Iowa), "Automation" (MIT), "Race Relations" (Fisk), "Mental Illness" (Tulane), twenty-seven in all.

A complete list of the titles in both series is available from Young America Films, 18 East 41st St., New York 18, N. Y. The demand will undoubtedly be heavy, and purchasers are urged to be patient and selective in ordering their preview prints. Rental copies of many of the titles should be available from leading educational libraries within the coming months.

THE PILGRIMS (22 min.) and **CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH** (20 min.). The educational film is evolving so rapidly that here we are, quite suddenly and unexpectedly, faced with two historical reenactment films which any adult could sit through with pleasure. "The Pilgrims" is an impressive two-reel drama beginning with events leading to the exile of the British Separatists to Holland and ending with their first formal Thanksgiving to God for having successfully settled in New England.

"Captain John Smith" is an impelling biography of the man, from boyhood to life in the Virginia colony and his recall to England. Everything in the film, including the last-minute rescue by Pocahontas, is punctuated with intellectual honesty and creative vitality.

In both films the dialogue is powerful and lifelike; camera, music, and sound effects are used with daring and talent. The action is exciting; the characters are people, not caricatures. Excerpts from the writings of Governor Brewster and Captain Smith give veracity and depth of feeling to the narration, which is inordinately sensible. Costumes, sets, and acting are several cuts above what we generally see here in historical films, including Hollywood productions.

Both were filmed at Merton Park Studios in England, along with a third production on Shakespeare which has yet to be released. The good news is that EBF writer-director-producer John Barnes is soon returning to Europe to make more films of this kind. Both films are produced and distributed for rental and purchase by Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

ADVENTURES OF A BABY FOX (13 min.). Following the release this spring of "The Hunter and the Forest" Encyclopaedia Britannica Films is now offering a second Sucksdorff short film for 16mm use. "We are very much aware," the EBF producer recently wrote me, "of our responsibility in handling these Sucksdorff films, because we consider them true works of art." Works of art they truly are!

Every image in this little film is taken from the most precise vantage point, in terms of beauty, honesty, and tenseness. A small pond and a woodland area are the locale, and most of the baby fox's adventures are in pursuit of food. Sucksdorff's camera finds striking beauty in the mist of dawn, in water and lily pads, crystal dew on leaf and branch, an electric-bright spider web, grass and flowers, and in the sensitive face of the fox cub and his playfellow. It's a safe enough prediction to say that primary graders will be seeing and loving this film in classrooms all over the country, as long as films are shown.

Picture, music, and sound effects in this American release—and in other Sucksdorff films yet to be released by EBF—are exactly as in the original Swedish version. For this particular film, one of Sucksdorff's earlier productions, the rather full commentary has been converted to couplet verses such as: "His nose is sharp—there's much to smell;/Oh, what a story he'll have to tell!/What's this! What can it be?/A bird that's just as big as he." The verses are read acceptably well, and are reasonably effective—but their addition to the mature pictures and music means, unfortunately, that few adult audiences will be able to sit through the film without frustrating torment. Schoolchildren, however, will have the treat of a lifetime—another sign of a new era in classroom teaching films. Distributed by Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Illinois.

MOOTI—CHILD OF NEW INDIA (15 min., color or b&w). This is the third film photographed, written, and produced by Michael Hagopian, an educator whose Ph.D. in political science has miraculously not hindered his ability to express exciting concepts in the picture-and-word idiom of the film. This latest film, on the junior-high-school level, incorporates many important ideas about changing India with a sensitive personal nearness to the people through the boy Mooti and his family. Some of the footage is exceptionally fine, some is only adequate—yet it is astounding to see what good use it all is put to. Specifically there are scenes of the family at work in the rice fields and making pottery, a village festival celebrating the maharajah's birthday, and a glimpse into the boyhood world of Mooti, child of new India. Produced and distributed by Atlantis Productions Inc., Post Office Box 8666, Hollywood 46, Calif.

ABC OF JET PROPULSION (17 min., color animation). This year's Golden Reel award winner among science films has three embodied spokesmen named Air, Fuel, and Ignition who explain how they operate inside a jet plane to make it go. The first half of the film had me grateful to its producers for the simple and clear description they presented in words and pictures. After that I got lost. For a truly "ABC" film the first ten minutes of the film would have been enough. Other films might then have been made to deal with the consequent complexities, variations, and exceptions to the simple rules. Distributed for free loan, and for purchase, by General Motors Film Library, 1776 Broadway, New York, N. Y.

YOUR BODY DURING ADOLESCENCE (10 min.). An illustrated-lecture type classroom film, with simplified animation, competent and careful. McGraw-Hill Text-Films.

PARENTS ARE PEOPLE TOO (15 min.). A story script in which teenagers discuss parent problems with their teacher, and get to see two sides to the parent-child relationship; spontaneous, natural dialogue helps keep it lively. McGraw-Hill.

THE MOST FOR YOUR MONEY (14 min.). Two teenagers show how to shop wisely and with a minimum of wasted effort; the story-line is specific, useful, and interesting; well suited for adult audiences too. McGraw-Hill.

THE STORY OF COLONEL DRAKE (27 min., color). An elaborate historical reenactment of the first American drilling for oil in Pennsylvania, with Vincent Price in the star role; produced through Film Counselors for the American Petroleum Institute, available free from Modern Talking Picture Service.

GLASS AND YOU (28 min., color). A pictorially attractive resumé of the history of glass and its many modern uses; produced by Paul Hance for the Corning Glass Works, available free from Association Films.

FIVE COLORFUL BIRDS, THE GRASSHOPPER, THE HONEYBEE, THE BUTTERFLY (each about 7 min., color). Short and specific classroom studies, with some striking color close-ups; the first-named won a golden Reel award this year. Coronet Films.

TOBACCO AND THE HUMAN BODY (15 min.). A vivid statement about the effect of tobacco tars and nicotine upon animal life; the film takes no side in the "to-smoke-or-not-to-smoke" controversy, but the evidence speaks rather loudly; certainly every teen-ager should have a chance to see this film *before* rather than after getting the tobacco habit. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

NATURE'S HALF ACRE (33 min., color). What is there to say other than that it is a wonderful Disney film, edited from the best nature footage there is; available for rental from Association Films, Ideal Pictures, Films, Inc. and many other 16mm distributors.

THE SUMI ARTIST (10 min., color). A charming demonstration by Chiura Obata of one style of Japanese black-on-white brush painting. Lobett Productions.

HOW TO MAKE PAPIER-MACHE ANIMALS (12 min., color). Another of Mrs. Ruby Niebauer's enjoyable how-to-do-it art films for school use; a recent Golden Reel award winner. Bailey Films.

LET'S BE AT HOME IN THE WATER (10 min., color). A clear and intelligent film teaching youngsters how to relax and enjoy safe swimming and boating. Portafilms.

FISH ARE INTERESTING (10 min., color). An easy-going approach to fish, showing a dozen or more types and commenting upon their general characteristics; one of a generally fine series of natural-science productions. Film Associates.

—CECILE STARR.

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BOOKED FOR TRAVEL

Wonder Bar

BACK in the early days of last spring while the *S.S. Independence* and I were rummaging about in the Mediterranean I was suddenly set upon in her library by a band of bookwormish researchers who defied me to list from memory the Seven Wonders of the World. Not only did I fail to name them, I discovered, after looking them up in the ship's encyclopedia, that there were some I couldn't even pronounce.

Ask someone to name these dusty old wonders and you will more likely get a list of the seven deadly sins, the seven lively arts, or the four Mills brothers. Maybe it is time to wonder about the wonders of today. Well-traveled citizens of my acquaintance just back from the fourteen-country, twenty-eight-day package tour of the Continent list the seven wonders as:

1. Harry's Bar in Venice
2. Harry's Bar in Paris
3. The Excelsior lobby in Rome
4. The George V lobby in Paris
5. The Dixon-Yates lobby in Washington
6. The Fontainebleau at Miami Beach
7. Texas

However, it is likely that some pioneers who traveled the little-known roads have been otherwise impressed. This department, therefore, will undertake a referendum. Readers, their relatives, and friends are invited to send in their own vote for the Seven Wonders of the *Modern* World. Merely tear off the top of your travel agent and send it with your list to Seven Wonders, The Saturday Review, 25 West 45th St., New York. Neatness doesn't count.

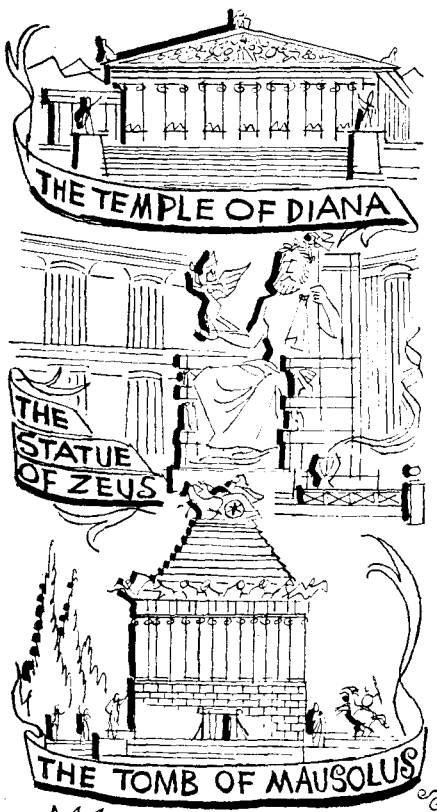
Now then, for those in the class who have been unable to rattle off the original wonders they are as follows:

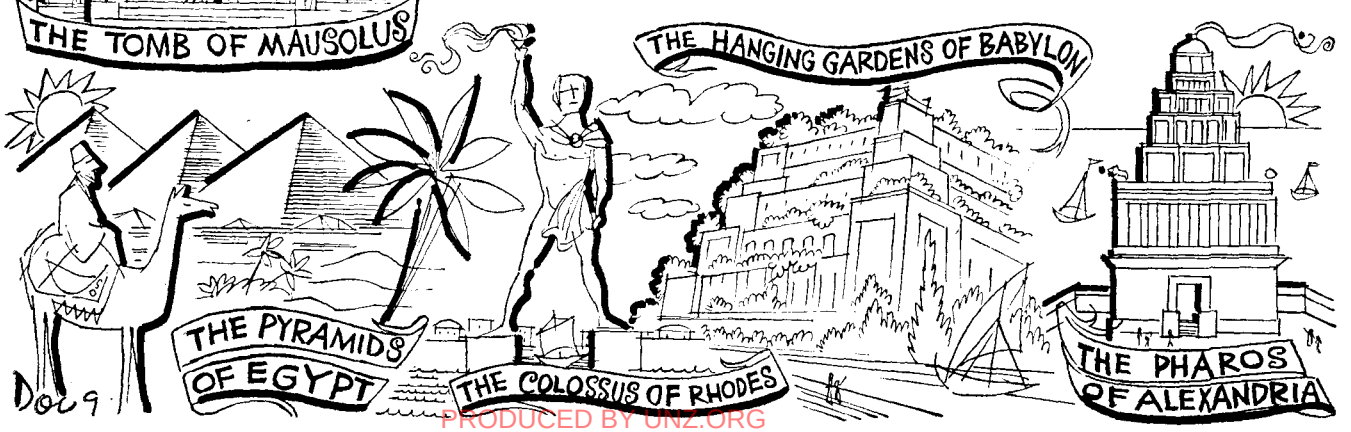
1. Pyramids of Egypt
2. Mausoleum erected by Queen Artemisia at Halicarnassus
3. Temple of Artemis (or Diana) at Ephesus
4. Colossus of Rhodes
5. Hanging Gardens of Babylon
6. Statue of Zeus by Phidias at Olympia
7. Lighthouse at Alexandria

Of these memorials which dazzled the Ancient World only one, the pyramids of Egypt, still remains. Since Howard Hawks, Cecil B. DeMille, and other scholars have undertaken to explain about the pyramids I will only remind you that they were built almost 5,000 years ago and have survived the Pharaohs, the French, and Farouk, all of whom were abroad in the land at one time. As any dragoman will tell you at the drop of a piastre, the Great Pyramid of Cheops is the largest and covers twelve acres, a site that took ten years to prepare. Thereafter 100,000 laborers worked twenty years to pyramid the monument to a height of 481 feet.

The Mausoleum was the tomb of King Mausolus of Caria, an ancient nation bordering the Aegean in southwest Asia Minor. Caria's biggest city was Halicarnassus, a metropolis also noted as the birthplace of Herodotus, the first travel writer. The memorial was built in 350 B.C. by Mausolus's widow, Artemisia, and it proved an ornate structure 140 feet high surrounded by columns, with a pyramid of steps above. On top was a sculpture depicting Mausolus and Artemisia riding in a four-horse chariot. It lasted until 1402 and remains of it are in the British Museum.

That brings us to Ephesus, which was an ancient Ionian city some thirty-five miles south and east of Izmir in Turkey not far from the present Turkish city of Aya Soluk. Here, near the Aegean Coast the cities of Ionia built a massive temple to Artemis, goddess of the moon and of hunting, and in her spare time protectress of women. Built in the fourth century B.C., the temple is supposed to have been 400 feet long and surrounded by more than 120 pillars each





Travelers!
Wanderers!
Wonderers!

Only seven wonders to a wonderer. Send in your list of the Seven Wonders of the *Modern* World to The Saturday Review, 25 West 45th St., New York, N. Y.

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sixty feet high. Greeks used it in pre-Christian days to worship Artemis, related to the Roman Diana. St. Paul twice visited Ephesus, and in 262 A.D. so did the Goths, sacking it.

Another marvel, also in the Greek world, was the statue of Zeus created by the brilliant sculptor Phidias of Athens. It stood in a Temple of Zeus at Olympia, the city of Olympian games which were begun there in 776 B.C. A forty-foot-high seated figure carved of marble and studded with ivory and gold, Zeus had a base circled with walks, and a spiral staircase led to a second tier where the upper parts could be better seen. When the statue was first installed Zeus is said to have dispatched a bolt of lightning signifying his approval of Phidias's handicraft. A vase was placed on the floor marking the spot where lightning struck. The statue lasted for a 1,000 years, but it was hauled off to Constantinople, where it succumbed to a fire. Bits of the black limestone base are on hand in Olympia.

THE harbor of the Greek island of Rhodes was once believed to be straddled by a giant statue of the sun god Helios, known far and also wide as the Colossus of Rhodes. The Colossus stood 100 feet high, his right hand is said to have held a beacon, and ships sailed under his legs. It took twelve years to build the figure, which was put up about 250 B.C. An earthquake knocked him over some sixty years later. At this juncture reports conflict, but a popular legend says the broken mass lay in the harbor for years and was finally sold as junk to a Syrian who packed it off eastward on a caravan of 900 camels.

The sixth wonder, the Pharos of Alexandria, was also lost to an earthquake. It was a combination lighthouse and watchtower erected at the command of Ptolmey II about 280 B.C. More than a 100 feet square, it rose in three stories to height of 200 feet. On top was a fire visible at night for twenty-five miles. A fourteenth-century earthquake sent it tumbling.

Easternmost eye-opener was the famous Hanging Gardens of Babylon, a city of ancient Mesopotamia on the banks of the Euphrates about fifty-five miles south of Baghdad in modern Iraq. A city of luxury, splendor, gaiety and temptation, Babylon painted its walls and towers in bright colors and they too were sometimes listed jointly with the gardens as a world wonder. During his rule, which lasted from 605 to 562 B.C., King Nebuchadnezzar II built tiers of arches, row on top of row. On the roof of each arch was a planted terrace, flow-

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(Advertisement)

Six-Cent Walk and the $4,200,000 Ticket

By THURMAN PRICE

THOSE OF US who remember their McGuffey, will recall the story of Lincoln's six-mile walk to return six cents. It was clear, even had you not *known* the ending, that this honest New Salem storekeeper was going to become our 16th president.

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ers spilling over the sides. Water was pumped up to storage tanks on the uppermost tier. Tourists meandering in Iraq can visit the ruins of gay old Babylon.

The state of the world's wonders is bound to give one an awful feeling of the impermanence of things. A thousand years from now Harry's Bar will long since have been sacked by somebody or other. The cultural advancements promoted by old Sherm Billingsley over TV will have been forgotten by an ungrateful society. And anybody who wants to learn about the glory that was Texas will have to resort to reading about it in an encyclopedia. —HORACE SUTTON.

TRAVELER'S TALE

ONE MAN'S ITALY: Not since the days of Browning and Landor has there been such a large group of Anglo-Saxon *letterati* living in Italy, and, therefore, Herbert Kubly's **"American in Italy"** (Simon & Schuster, $4.50) will probably be read. Mr. Kubly has a rare gift for getting comic or eccentric personalities down on paper and he is no less gifted when it comes to candid camera shots of his own compatriots. But, alas, there is another side to Mr. Kubly's book. He is a man of good will and I believe him when he says he is fond of the Italians. But the picture he gives us of them is not likely to flatter an Italian and may, I think, offend some of Italy's friends of longer standing than the author. For one thing Mr. Kubly's dramatic-comic taste betrays him. In fourteen months in Italy he rarely meets anyone with the exception of social workers whom he can really respect. His friend Tullio, the post boy Carmelo, the *scugnizzi* in Naples, and the blind masseur in Florence—all these are characters whom he can safely patronize. He must have met some of his own class and kind but he tells us nothing of them, so that it is as though an Italian journalist went through America meeting only bootblacks, slum dwellers, and the administration of Boys' Town. To read Mr. Kubly's lively memoirs, one might assume that the *padrona* of every boarding house and hotel between Palermo and Turin tries to seduce the lodgers, that the mattresses are lumpy, and that a public urinal stands in front of every street door. This sort of nation-labeling is always suspect and derives, I suspect, from a lack of historical perspective. As a result I can't help feeling that Mr. Kubly's report would have been fairer had he tried to be less colorful.

—THOMAS G. BERGIN.

Financing Schools

Continued from page 22

eight states in which more than per cent of all school funds used i the state are derived from propert taxes. Because of this whole situa tion the following questions shoul be discussed at the coming Conference

How can states determine whethe their provisions for state financia support for schools are sound?

What should be done in cases wher studies show that present appropria tions are not equitably distributed

What percentage of the total fund for schools should be derived fror property taxes and how much fror non-property taxes?

In addition to these questions ther are many other problems to be con sidered. One of the most importan of these has to do with the high cos of school buildings. About one-hal of the states have now begun to fac up to the fact that inadequate build ings handicap their educational pro grams. Most of these states, however have thus far made little more tha a gesture toward solving the prob lem. A few states have recognized that the building problem is a con tinuing problem as is that of edu cating children. Florida has provided a plan of state assistance in orde to supplement local effort and t enable every district to replace its buildings approximately every fifty years. Districts with immediate build ing needs can, if necessary, borrow through the state sufficient funds t provide their buildings. California has developed a loan-grant plan for districts with emergency needs: any such district when it has bonded itself practically to the limit may borrow funds through the state, then repay the state at a predetermined rate over a period of thirty years; and any part remaining unpaid at that time may be canceled. Pennsylvania has developed a building authority t construct buildings and lease them to the district. This plan enables districts to obtain buildings regardless of customary bonding limits. However, Pennsylvania has learned that less wealthy districts are not in position to pay rent on these buildings unless they have special assistance for that purpose from the state. At the White House Conference both the advantages and disadvantages of such state plans should be considered. This question should be added:

Should local school districts be expected to provide their own buildings and finance the construction from the proceeds of property taxes? If not, what plans should be developed to

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assure the school districts satisfactory buildings on an economical basis in all districts where buildings are needed?

There are complications to these problems. In a number of states limitations have been incorporated in the constitution or in state laws which have made it impossible for people in many local school systems to do for themselves what they would like to do. Several states limit directly or indirectly the taxes which may be voted by the people for the support of schools. Several states have no such limitations and consequently depend upon the common sense of the people to determine the amount of local effort which may be made to support schools. Practically all states have established limits on the amount of bonds which may be voted for school purposes in relationship to the valuation of the property. The states of Indiana and Kentucky have unrealistically limited these amounts for bonds to 2 per cent of the valuation of local taxable property, though a more common limitation is 5 to 15 per cent. Unfortunately, in many states the limitation is based on locally determined assessed valuations, which may vary considerably from one school district to another. Thus the ability to provide buildings also varied from district to district. So the next questions to be asked are:

To what extent can and should we encourage local initiative and responsibility in providing support for schools?

What, if any, limitations on local effort are desirable?

There has been considerable discussion concerning the ability of the various states to support schools. (See page 23.) What are the facts?

On a percentage basis the four least wealthy states gained almost twice as much as did the four most wealthy states in ability to provide education between 1940 and 1953. Yet during this thirteen-year period the four most wealthy states gained two and one-half times as much in dollars of income per child than did the four least wealthy states.

It is obvious that we have a great many problems in school finance which need to be faced realistically and which cannot be solved merely by taking expedient action or by patching up provisions which are obsolete. If we believe in providing adequate educational opportunities in this country for all who should be educated we should take immediate practical steps to see that these problems are solved. We cannot afford to temporize or to rationalize at the expense of the children or of the taxpayers.

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The Colleges Face a Rising Tide

Continued from page 27

without membership in a fraternity or sorority. As things are we have an army of misfits, who lower educational standards and increase expense, and no branch of a university staff has grown more rapidly of late years than the psychiatric squad.

"Second, many people have grounds for the belief that the multiplying junior colleges can and will drain off a large number of the young who for various reasons are unfitted for a really strenuous four-year course. Junior colleges, however, should not be recreational centers for the subnormal.

"Third, I think the need for formal education beyond high school would be much lessened, and the quality of education in general greatly improved, if the colleges and universities, getting the public behind them, made a concerted and effectual demand that the schools do their proper work and do it better than a great many schools have been doing it. Quite commonly, a distressing proportion of a college course now consists of high-school work. . . . Imagine a European university teaching the rudiments of expression! If high-school graduates are illiterate they have no business in college. For a long time, and for a variety of reasons, we have had slackness all along the line; somehow, some time, strictness and discipline have got to begin."

Here are the views of Victor L. Butterfield, president of Wesleyan University: "Humanitarian and egalitarian sentimentality; the increasing demand of young people for at least the symbols of higher education; competitive urges of pride, prestige, and prejudice in our communities and in our institutions; our fear of Russia and her educational productivity—this whole complex of motives, along with others, will drive us toward expansion. . . .

"Despite the fact that we will meet these needs I think the effort will result largely in giving more people more bad education. As an untutored but shrewd acquaintance of mine put it to me the other day, 'Everybody's getting to be a college boy, and each one dumber than the next.' With additional masses of students there will be an intensification of mass learning processes, of large lectures by means of loud-speakers, radio, and television, of more textbook learning, more objective testing and curve grading—an expansion of all the methods, in short, that make for the passive, regurgitated learning that does so little to stimulate positive curiosity and creative thought."

The views of Charles W. Cole, president of Amherst College: "There are social and educational values that are lost when a 'small' college gets too big. Nobody knows how big 'too big' is, but most faculty members and alumni [at or of Amherst] would like to see the college stay under 1,000."

The views of Otto F. Kraushaar, president of Goucher College: "While well aware of the pressure of mounting applications [the Goucher trustees] recognize one great responsibility—that of preserving the values of the college."

The views of E. Wilson Lyon, president of Pomona College: "We are unable, by our very definition of ourselves as a small college and our determination to remain one, to assume any part of the burden of educating the thousands of additional students who must be accommodated in our state in the years immediately ahead. We are, however, presented with an opportunity to make a qualitative contribution of the first order."

Pomona, by the way, is located in California—a state in which the public-private ratio in higher education already stands at eighty to twenty. In the nation at large the ratio is at this time roughly fifty-fifty. Needless to say, it is all going to have to tip distinctly in the California, or eighty-twenty, direction if the public institutions expand while the private ones sit tight. And I have been told that in one state—I do not know which—a total sit-tight policy on the part of the private colleges would force the state university, if all eligible students were in the end to be accommodated, to go from its present enrollment of 15,000 to something as fantastic as 85,000! The reason that I do not know the state is that the ACE isn't saying yet, not even to the people directly concerned. The logic behind such diffidence, if you want to call it that, was explained to me as follows by an ACE spokesman: "You can't do everything all at once, on the first go-round. There's no use just having everyone blow their tops every day—that doesn't help, it hurts. On the second or third go-round"—annual ACE confabs on the whole problem—"we'll be able to talk more and more of the facts of life."

THE expansionist side of the argument is fairly self-apparent. I shall not quote quite as fully as I've done above, not through partiality, but because there is so much parallelism in so many of the expansionist statements.

As good a place as any to begin is with the University of Rhode Island which may well have to attempt to face up to a 100 per cent enrollment-increase by 1970: "Almost inevitably publicly supported institutions will have to assume the major responsibility for educating the increased number of young people. . . . We have grown strong in the conviction that young people have a right to an education if they are capable of doing the work. . . . Many privately supported institutions are unwilling to expand and many cannot secure the necessary funds for growth. With the increasing cost of education it is also evident that more candidates for college will turn to the less expensive state-supported institutions. . . ."

From Arizona State: "Growth is to be expected in every one of the multitude of services which a state college must provide to its students and its constituency if it is to be worthy of the name."

From Montana State: "We must plan and act in the Fifties for the certain and important needs of the Sixties. Now is the time for Montana State College to push diligently for expanded and improved facilities in order that we may render maximum service to our state and country in the years ahead."

From Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute: "We cannot bury our heads in the sand and say, 'This much we can do well and no more.'

"Ours is a living, dynamic, ex-

The Mask

By Eric Barker

IN THE mirror
Children and lovers walk,
Cattle graze;
A stilted heron spreads a sunset ring
Pure as a halo one might wear
Imaged in second sky the rain brings down,
The highest region now is doubly blessed.
More so for what we make of earth—
Precarious anchorage.
Beauty and ugliness have both looked in,
Devil and saint;
And that true sphinx, the image of them both.
Yet see how lovely the mask is,
Showing no more of craft than idling clouds
That move like swans across the summer water.

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panding way of life. Our colleges, too, must be living, dynamic, expanding. So, given the necessary help with funds and equipment, and in spite of stand-pat announcements by some, I am sure that many of us in the engineering colleges and universities . . . stand ready to accept our full responsibilities."

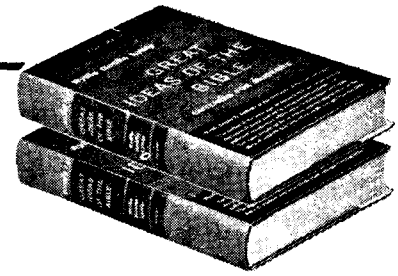
From the University of Illinois, one of the giants: "The tremendous future growth predicted for higher education indicates the probable necessity to further decentralize and provide branches of universities at different locations. There are advantages of such a plan. In the first place, it will put higher education in easier reach of students."

And from the University of Buffalo, in a statement reflecting municipal even more than state or regional attitudes: "A larger proportion of people live in cities than ever before.... For the foreseeable future the majority will not have the means to send [their children] to distant, expensive universities. . . . The college student often has better opportunities for self-help in his own community than he has elsewhere. . . . The urban university is becoming the university of the middle class, and the middle class is beginning to encompass all of America. There are those who smugly decry this trend, but that doesn't stop it."

THE divisions of opinion, as you see, are sharp, intense, and getting more and more "personal." For this reason it strikes me that the recent remarks of President S. B. Gould of Antioch College are particularly pertinent: "I am convinced that the tremendous and terrifying problems which suddenly face higher education in America are fortunate: they make it mandatory for us to examine what we are doing—to reassess our educational philosophy; to adopt new methods and adapt old ones; to find new resources in teachers, facilities, and financing; and in general to raise hob with the status quo. . . .

"Changes . . . are necessary and important, and they will come. But they are on the plateaus of adventure. . . .

"It seems to me that this is the time for experimentation, for practical research. . . . We have a few years of grace before the full impact of population trends, technological advances, and social changes will be upon us. After that it will be a mad scramble to keep up. . . . In such an atmosphere of crisis we shall merely compound the errors and omissions of the past. But careful study now, properly guided and supported, will lead us to soundly conceived solutions and positive action."



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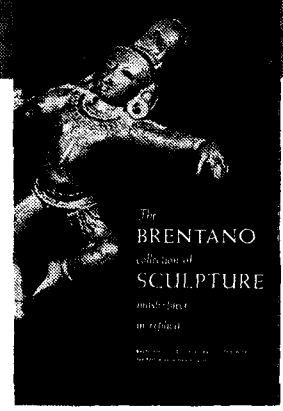

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Education in the News: 1955-56

Continued from page 29

the blind alley. The John Whitney Foundation is continuing its scheme which returns retired college professors to teaching. But perhaps most important, the Fund for the Advancement of Education (of the Ford Foundation) is in the last and successful stages of an experiment carried out in Bay City, Michigan. This plan permits "master teachers" with the help of "teachers' aids" to reach greater numbers of children (up to seventy in one room). In several other school systems, perhaps as a result of the Bay City experience (which is being widely studied and sporadically imitated), new school-building plans include "expandable" classrooms.

At the same time careful experimentation and study are being carried out with television as means of using the available teacher force more effectively. Much of this is still in the prepublication stage; some is still in the "talking" phase; all of it is being seriously considered.

Throughout this search for answers it was evident that the educational foundations were taking a bold lead, in no way intimidated by last year's hostile report by the Congressional Reece Committee.

• • A new spirit of courage marked much of the year in other ways, too. When a university administrator tried briefly to forestall legislative criticism by vetoing a scientific appearance by Dr. J. Robert Oppenheimer open opposition to his caution was strong and immediate.

At Columbia University Dr. Oppenheimer not only delivered a major address, but the institution's president, on another occasion, said bluntly that the American people should "be mature enough to turn their backs upon the ranting little men . . . and the inanities of those self-appointed guardians who label as Communist or left-wing everything they do not approve."

Attacks on textbooks seemed a thing of the past.

• • If the most dramatic news of a year ago was the Supreme Court decision against segregation in the public schools, the less spectacular news of the constant progress toward the goal of integration or, at least, desegregation throughout the current year may well be even more important. There have, of course, been setbacks. Growling noises from the Deep South are disturbing. But even there the diehard resistance speakers have come to talk about fifty years instead of "never" when they debate the issue of "mixing the races." And when it was recently reported that Georgia has appointed twenty-five "special sheriffs" to "enforce segregation" there seems a measure of impotence in the empty gesture of defiance.

On the bright side, Washington has achieved integration with a minimum of difficulty. Baltimore has overcome the opposition and desegregated its schools. It has just published a valuable case study, "Desegregation in the Baltimore Schools," financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. In Arizona, New Mexico, Kansas, Missouri, West Virginia, and Delaware desegregation is moving toward the final goal of equality. Oklahoma, Kentucky, and Maryland are moving more slowly in that direction.

In its decision implementing last year's anti-segregation ruling the Supreme Court chose patient firmness. No time limit for desegregation was set; but the burden was clearly put on the local school systems to prove that they were working toward the goal of equality. That progress is more than a mirage may be seen from these figures: within the first year after the ruling about 250,000 Negro and white children in 500 schools, segregated a year ago, now attend class together.

• • If political controversy took a backseat, another kind of controversy burst into the open. It was caused by a book. Rudolf Flesch published his part-critical, part-do-it-yourself volume called "Why Johnny Can't Read," and the battle was joined (*SR*, July 30). Briefly, Flesch accused the modern method of "word reading" of being the cause of all nonreading. On the other hand, he said, go back to the old phonic or alphabet way of teaching, and Johnny is "guaranteed" to read in no time. You paint your own living room, said Flesch; why not teach your own child how to read.

Many of the Flesch arguments and a good deal of his "documentation" could easily be proven doubtful, but the public rushed out to buy the arguments and the book which has remained on best-seller lists ever since. Newspapers syndicated the Flesch story although some journals permitted their education specialists to add qualifying comments. At educators' meetings Flesch's name became a dirty word.

Whatever the merits or demerits of the book (and the ignore-your-teacher argument is likely to do a good deal of harm) the episode highlighted a dangerous sin, at least of omission, of which education had obviously been guilty. Whether the modern way of teaching had been right or wrong it had obviously not been explained sufficiently well to the parents. More important, it is quite evidently true that many children had not learned to read as well as they should (or, at any rate, as their parents thought they should), and nobody had bothered to state the reasons for, or to remedy, the situation. Educators need not have been stampeded into defensive, unprepared positions had they not permitted dissatisfaction to simmer beneath the surface. Somewhere that essential line of communications between school and public had broken down. (Let it be added that the press shares this guilt.)

• • Another book, just published, will probably get less public attention, even though it is of more far-reaching importance. "Education at Amherst," by Professor Gail Kennedy, reviews one of the most significant postwar experiments in higher education, the "new Amherst curriculum" (see page 58). What the plan does is to give all students a common basis on which to build, argue, compare notes. It tries to stop the fragmentation of knowledge without putting a strait jacket on the individual. It may be an important signpost toward quality education, eventually even on the high-school level.

• • Some achievements are easily overlooked. When people speak of pioneering in higher education they generally think of Oxford, Cambridge, Heidelberg, Harvard, Yale, or Princeton. But there is a forgotten element in higher education which is completely American and which helped as much as any other ingredient to-

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ward the success of the American experiment. If it is sometimes overlooked at home, it is carefully studied everywhere abroad. A university based on the agricultural college (later to become the land-grant institution) is celebrating its one hundredth anniversary this year at Michigan State University, descendant of the first agricultural college.

• • If the agricultural college represents one of the early American revolutions, the citizen movement in support of the public schools constitutes one of the most recent upheavals. Only six years old, the National Citizens' Commission for the Public Schools, under the leadership of Roy E. Larsen, announced this year that its primary objectives had been accomplished. It would cease operations early next year. This does not imply that its work has been done; it does mean that the operation has now been built into the nation's life on a permanent basis through state citizens' committees which will carry on the Commission's work. A national agency will probably continue to handle some of the information and publication job. Meanwhile, within the past year it is estimated that the number of active citizen groups in support of the schools has grown from 9,000 to 10,000.

* * *

Can a year's achievements in education ever be summed up? Probably not. Education makes its impact on generations, not on the Class of '55. Its trends are measured in decades and centuries, not in semesters. Much that sounds new and revolutionary today is merely the rediscovery of what had been temporarily forgotten. But since the laws of reporting and the public idea of measurable progress demands that the professional observer apply the yardstick at least once every year this is my estimate, admittedly unseasoned by time and hindsight:

The year was marked by a return to sensible perspectives. The frantic, screaming, argumentative postwar phase that cried out for immediate solutions and left no stone unturned to look for scapegoats under it—that hectic, panicky, unsafe episode is over. Many "solutions" have not been found. Crises are still ahead. But more people are working on long-range plans of preventing them. There is a new sense of a different kind of urgency: to make education better in addition to keeping it experimental, expanding, and universal. This year more people than ever before seemed to know how difficult a job this is, and how essential that it be tackled and pursued.

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The Schoolman's Bookshelf

SCHOOLS IN TRANSITION. *Edited by Robin M. Williams, Jr., and Margaret W. Ryan. University of North Carolina Press.* $3.

Through a series of case histories, the problems of segregation in the public schools and solutions of them are presented here. The survey covers the transition from bi-racial public schools to integrated institutions, accomplished or delayed, in communities from New Jersey to Arizona.

THE ADOLESCENT YEARS: An Adult's Guide to Teen-Age Behavior. *By William W. Watenberg. Harcourt, Brace & Co.* $8.00.

This is an exhaustive treatment of the whole of teen-age life. It describes physical and psychological growth, traces the influences on that growth that exist in today's American social scene, and deals in great detail with the problems that arise out of these situations, as well as the techniques and agencies that try to solve them. While any intelligent parent would find this book useful and interesting, it is obviously primarily intended for teachers, students of education, and libraries, and probably as a textbook. The material in the text is everywhere supplemented and expanded by charts and graphs that give life and meaning to the statistics which are inseparable from any such study. The author is a professor of educational psychology at Wayne University.

UNDERSTANDING TEEN-AGERS. *By Paul H. Landis. Appleton-Century-Crofts.* $3.

Here is a practical manual for parents and teachers which is based on a refreshingly close knowledge of what teen-agers actually think of the families and society to which they must adjust. Mr. Landis, an experienced teacher and student of education, has taken his points of departure from the texts of hundreds of autobiographies written by college students who were asked to deal with the experiences that they thought had most to do with shaping their personalities. Even though this would be a rather specialized group, the author makes valid generalizations of the material that can apply to most teen-agers. What makes the book most unusual is that he has quoted liberally from these autobiographies, some of them amusing and some quite terrifying in their implication of the submerged feelings of young people.

EDUCATION AT AMHERST: The New Program. *Edited by Gail Kennedy. Harper & Bros.* $4.

An Amherst professor of philosophy discusses the workings and principles of the college's "new" curriculum. Briefly, through the new approach a concentrated attempt is made to teach the art of *utilizing* knowledge. The omnibus survey course which progressively includes "less and less about more and more" is shunned in favor of the clinical and case methods used in law and medical school to obtain integrated and depth knowledge.

FACULTY RIGHTS AND OBLIGATIONS IN EIGHT INDEPENDENT LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGES. *By Charles P. Dennison. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.* $4.50.

This is a discussion of the various situations to be found in faculty status at a group of fairly similar Eastern colleges, made by a Princeton administrator with the detailed cooperation of the faculties and administrations of the institutions that he studied. The author gathered the pertinent questions of college faculty life into a postulated "Academic Bill of Rights," covering the areas of personal and professional status and promotion, professional growth, and faculty participation in running the educational enterprise. He then examined the material from the various colleges of the study in the light of these vital points, and put together a picture of the present situation in these colleges, its implications in connection with problems of other colleges and universities, and possible future trends. There is a large bibliography and a tabular summary of provisions and practices in the eight colleges, which are, by the way, Colgate, Haverford, Hobart, Mount Holyoke, Sarah Lawrence, Swarthmore, Vassar, and Wesleyan.

FINE'S AMERICAN COLLEGE COUNSELOR AND GUIDE. By Benjamin Fine. *Prentice-Hall, Inc.* $4.95.

The fact that a book like this is needed is a perfect demonstration of the fluid nature of the American social system and of the revolution that has occurred in American education in the last fifty years. Thousands of young people who are the first in their families to go to college will need to know the kind of information Mr. Fine, who is education editor of *The New York Times*, gives in his sections which describe what college education is all about, and how college life and classroom techniques differ from our common primary- and secondary-school experience. There is also an encyclopedic section of practical information on costs, locations, requirements, and characteristics of just about every college in America. All this material is presented in Mr. Fine's well-known lively and chatty style.

JAMES BURRILL ANGELL: An American Influence. *By Shirley W. Smith. University of Michigan Press.* $7.50.

A biography of one of the titans of American higher education, who was descended from an old New England family, was successively a professor at Brown, editor of the *Providence Journal*, president of the University of Vermont, president of the University of Michigan, United States minister to China and Turkey, and father of James Rowland Angell, the reforming president of Yale in the Twenties and Thirties.

THE PURPOSE OF HIGHER EDUCATION. *By Huston Smith. Harper & Bros.* $3.50.

Over a period of eighteen months educators of every intellectual persuasion were invited by a faculty committee of Washington University to hash out their views on education theory and methods. Professor Smith summarizes and comments on the resultant conferences.

ACADEMIC FREEDOM. *By Russell Kirk. Henry Regnery Co.* $3.75.

Mr. Kirk, author of "The Conservative Mind" and "A Program for Conservatives," writes outspokenly on the current controversies about academic freedom. He takes issue with the ideas advanced by William F. Buckley, Jr., and critically examines the issues behind purges and dismissals which recently made the headlines. Mr. Kirk believes that our academic institutions should dedicate themselves primarily in their education-aims toward "the elevation of the reason of the human person, for the human person's own sake."

ANCIENT EDUCATION. *By William A. Smith. Philosophical Library.* $3.75.

A survey of education and its attendant cultural phenomena in the seven ancient peoples whose cultures have most contributed to those of the modern world. This volume is particularly concerned with the emergence of formal linguistic communication through writing, and the preservation of cultural records. Since it is a relatively short summary, and is intended to serve only as an introduction to its subject, it has a thorough bibliography to which the text is keyed, almost sentence by sentence, so that the student may easily follow out into specialization any topic in which he is interested.

CRUCIAL ISSUES IN EDUCATION: An Anthology. *Edited by Henry Ehlers. Henry Holt & Co. Paperbound,* $2.25.

A comprehensive collection of materials organized around current problems of education, and arranged for use in class or seminar discussion. These problems are divided into five major areas: Freedom for Teachers, Freedom for Learners, Religion and Public Education, Racial Segregation, and Classroom Methods and Materials. The contributions, ranging from texts of court decisions to articles in professional journals, are chosen to give the best and most responsible arguments possible on all sides of the issues, and they have the additional virtue of being uniformly lively and readable. The editor has also contributed a number of illuminating introductory essays and connecting commentaries.

THE DOCTRINES OF THE GREAT EDUCATORS. *By Robert R. Rusk. Third Edition. St. Martin's Press.* $2.75.

A series of commentaries on educational philosophies from Plato to John Dewey, meant to accompany a reading of the original texts of the great educators. Although the book does not pretend to be a complete history of education, it covers the ground substantially in its digressions, comparisons, and comments on the social backgrounds of its subjects.

EDUCATION AND RESPONSIBILITY. *By Tunis Romein. University of Kentucky Press.* $3.50.

Three educational philosophies—progressivism, classical humanism, and educational reconstructionism—are given a critical examination by a former dean of North Carolina's Mitchell College. His solution to what he calls the demoralization in our school system requires that Roman Catholic and Protestant unite in formulating a religious platform that would be made part of the school systems.

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EDUCATING WOMEN FOR A CHANGING WORLD. *By Kate Hevner Mueller. University of Minnesota Press.* $4.75.

Since the life patterns of women as earners and homemakers differ from those of men, and our society "is in a stage of transition in roles for women and attitudes toward them," Mrs. Mueller, a professor in the Indiana School of Education, contends that education for the modern woman requires thoughtful reorientation. Just how the problem should be met is the basic theme of this study.

PHILOSOPHIES OF EDUCATION IN CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE. *By Theodore Brameld. The Dryden Press.* $4.50.

A textbook for college students and students in schools of education by a professor of educational philosophy in New York University, this work divides the field into three parts: progressivism, essentialism, and perennialism. After giving a general view of the relation of education to philosophy and culture, the text discusses these three main views of education in historical perspective, and with particular reference to the valid contributions that all three can make to a unified philosophy of education for today. The method is critical throughout, and the author's summaries, paraphrases, and comments are extremely fair and clearly stated. It is, however, easy to detect his own interesting and perfectly valid eclectic view. Also, unlike many college texts, this is an extremely well-written book.

FOUNDATIONS OF SCHOOL LEARNING. *By Harry Grove Wheat. Alfred A. Knopf.* $5.50.

In attempting to avoid the difficulties inherent in *traditional, disciplinary,* and *formal* learning some educators have come up with what some regard as oversimplified curricula. Mr. Wheat, professor of education at West Virginia University, calls for what he calls "a return to learning." Applying psychological techniques, he shows how the teacher may present and develop subject matter in a more meaningful way.

STUDYING LAW. *Edited by Arthur T. Vanderbilt. Third Edition. New York University Press.* $6.00.

A scholarly and informative introduction to the study of one of the traditional "jealous mistresses" of education. This book was intended as a guide for students, particularly those returning to their studies after the war, but it has caught on in the established legal profession as well, because it provides a thorough summary of the basic philosophies and theories of the practice of Anglo-Saxon law. It consists of a number of separate articles by some of the world's greatest legal scholars covering the history of the law, the relations between bench and bar, and the social implications of changes in law and legislation. The editor is a former law dean at New York University and is now Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of New Jersey. The contributors are such giants of the law as Roscoe Pound, Arthur Goodhart, John H. Wigmore, and Albert J. Beveridge.

ADULT EDUCATION AND GROUP WORK. *By Louis Lowy. William Morrow & Co.* $4.

Group dynamics without technical jargon is explained clearly for the benefit of teachers and social workers who are in contact with young adults, adults in school extension programs, and the wide range of people in organized community groups.

—THOMAS E. COONEY AND SIEGFRIED MANDEL.

Fraternities: Evil Force

Continued from page 28

nent executive secretaries, though variously called, presiding over the central office in which the business affairs of their particular fraternity go steadily on. These men become expert in their work, *and their influence is widely asserted*" (italics mine).

THE principles of old remain today, in the National Interfraternity Conference view: "Cultivation of the mind, refinement of conduct and manners, enrichment of the human soul," etc. Apart from the extent to which fraternities serve such principles in practice, these elements hardly are promoted more effectively by a national rather than an individual approach.

Obviously the national officers recognize their vulnerability. Little wonder, then, that they fear the move of State University of New York in breaking their power. Natural enough, too, for the National Interfraternity Conference to sue, seeking to restrain State University of New York on "constitutional" grounds. The suit was dismissed in the United States district court by a special panel, with the late Judge Augustus Hand writing the opinion. Later the Supreme Court upheld this opinion. It was logical, too, for the national officers to inspire the letter-writing campaign. I dismiss the possibility that college boys the country over spontaneously initiated a mass letter-writing effort. The professionals thought it up, hoping to intimidate me or the State University's trustees. They never had a chance.

In the same broadside which I've cited above the National Interfraternity Conference interpolates glibly: "The college law is the law of the fraternity as the latter is an integral part of the college itself."

Nonsense. In the first place, the fraternity is a social adjunct tolerated (although, in rare cases, encouraged) by the college. I know of only a few instances in which a realistic president or trustee views the fraternity as an indispensable part of the educational apparatus. More important, the NIC's professed submission to the "college law" is not supported by the facts. I reject it entirely and so, I believe, will any candid president who has ever dealt with a national fraternity's organization. The National Interfraternity Conference's true attitude toward the "college law" is demonstrated vividly by its suit against the State University of New York for having established a law to govern fraternal relations within the university.

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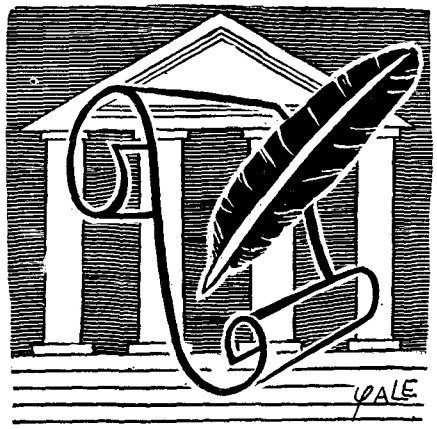

University of New York is composed of twenty-seven geographically separated colleges, most of which antedate the university's own founding in 1948.

On the campuses of many of these colleges national fraternities were organized before 1948. The number of different national fraternities and sororities involved was approximately twenty-five. Among the State University campuses with national organizations is the State University Teachers College in Cortland. In 1952 membership of one sorority there erupted in a mass resignation of some thirty-seven girls who protested discriminatory practices enforced on the local chapter by the national organization. An inquiry sustained the girls' complaints and brought the sorority's national representative on a hurry-up emergency visit to reiterate that national policy forbade the girls' pledging a Negro girl, as they wished to do.

The national handed down these ultimatums: The girls at Cortland were "distinctly local-minded and didn't realize what it meant to be national"; they were slack in some things that "national" required of them; they must sign a loyalty statement in order to "remain national." All these were euphemisms for taking the national's policies, including discrimination—or else.

UNDOUBTEDLY, constraint was upon the girls to preclude their pledging Negro girls. Yet, to my subsequent queries, the sorority's national officers repeatedly declared that the sorority had "no discriminatory restrictions whatsoever . . . because of race, color, creed, or national origin. . . ."

True enough, the sorority's constitution contained no such restrictions. But word-of-mouth policy—as inflexible as any constitution—prohibits pledging of Negro girls. And not merely were we confronted with a "silent" constitution; the responsible officers deliberately concealed the real facts. We wanted assurance that the sorority was non-discriminatory, not only in specific mandates of the constitution, but in those tacit, unwritten practices and understandings. In direct contrast to the evidence unearthed in the Cortland ultimatum and resignations, the national officers did assure me that the sorority had "no agreements or tacit unwritten practices and understandings" contrary to the constitution. Obviously this conflicting evidence destroyed my faith in the national officers of that particular sorority. We suspended the sorority's chapter at Cortland and another at the State University College for Teachers in Buffalo. They remain under suspension today.

We went through the same frustrating procedure with a second sorority in Cortland in which the students themselves rebelled against pressure from the national organization. The national officers simultaneously were denying the girls permission to pledge a Negro and assuring me that their constitution and unwritten practices lacked discriminatory clauses. This sorority also was suspended.

In a third instance of unquestioned discrimination at a State University college suspension proved unnecessary because the members simply broke up the chapter. All sixty-two were in a fraternity at the State University College for Teachers in Albany, and they resigned from their national to form their own locally-governed group. National headquarters refused to let them pledge five Jewish students after the Albany chapter led—successfully, it thought—a fight to eliminate a "white gentile" clause in the national's constitution. The national officers had simply started one of those "gentlemen's agreements" and shifted the offending clause to the ritual, making it unacceptable to anyone other than gentiles.

These three shockingly cynical evasions by fraternities and sororities which profess great admiration for the "college law" coincided with our study to learn if fraternity and sorority constitutions flout the State law. We uncovered just one offending constitution among twenty-five—and that one did not involve any of these three groups where discriminatory practices were proved.

Clearly, here was a pattern of misrepresentation. The national fraternities and sororities misinformed and misled me—and their own young members—whenever it best served their purpose. I concluded that I had no way of determining the actual practice of national fraternities at any time the officers decided to withhhold facts.

A proposal made to me by one of the nation's leading proponents of fraternities, a man whose leadership probably is second to none in those circles, bolstered this belief. In a letter assuring me of his powerful organization's "support" in eliminating discriminatory practices, he suggested a novel deal: Remove the selective clause from fraternity and sorority documents—but "continue their ancient custom of permitting the majority of the chapters to pass judgment on any pledge before he or she could be initiated." In other words continue the status quo so that discrimination might be perpetuated by subterfuge. Needless to say, I rejected the proposal that I and the State University of New York become parties to fraternity under-the-table dealing. But I was discouraged to find the topmost fraternity authorities specifically backing up the doubletalk and deceit that individual fraternities were revealing.

DISCRIMINATION is just one aspect—though the most glaring—of conduct and misconduct in fraternity affairs. Read any handbook for the fraternity advocate, or the proceedings of any serious fraternity meeting, and you will encounter many more examples of what the fraternities themselves recognize as their weak spots. Time after time you'll find troubled references to sub-par scholarship among the members; social conduct ranging from drinking to systematic evasion of chaperones; hazing and the infamous "Hell Week"; unpaid bills (including many large ones to the national organizations); and numerous others.

Customarily, though, the fraternities try to put any outside critic on the defensive by casting aspersions at his motives. In one recent national fraternity handbook a chapter on "Criticism of the Fraternity System" was devoted largely to such remarks as these: "What opposition still obtains is largely founded upon personal pique and disappointment, and the general criticism of certain other organizations hostile by the very nature of their group"; "that the fraternity may be discriminatory in their selections (of members) is no basis for criticism"; and "the origin and source of opposition to fraternities have often been attributed to personal pique or bias and prejudice naturally arising from the disappointment some individual feels because he or she failed to be invited to join a fraternity or sorority." An advertisement for a fraternity booklet titled "Discrimination? No, It's Only Selection" says that this "fine, clear, concise analysis" will "effectively answer all the hullabaloo over fraternity discrimination whipped up into a frenzy by, well, you know whom!"

The allusion, of course, is to such

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roublemakers as Communists—or just he kids who got blackballed or didn't ıave the money to join. To the allega- ions that the critics are either jealous ocial outcasts or dangerous radicals, I ffer some thoughts in rebuttal. The nost ardent anti-fraternity men, I ind, are *ex*-fraternity men who have earned the truth on the inside—and here's not a radical in a carload. , myself, was a brother until I re- igned.

All the many eternal "problems" vith which the fraternities shadow- ox should be under the control of the ollege or university. No item in the ocial life of any college-recognized group should be hidden from the dean f students or other authority. Simi- arly, no fraternity or fraternity-mem- er should be accountable to an off- ampus hierarchy for standards of onduct. For too long America's col- eges have paid a heavy price for the enefits which the fraternities and ororities claim for themselves. The nly answer to re-aligning dog and ail in proper wagging sequence is for ollege administrators and trustees to eize the initiative as the State Uni- ersity of New York has done.

MY EXPERIENCE with national raternities offers proof that they do xercise, as they say, "widely asserted nfluence" over the immature college oy and girl. They do, indeed, wield heir self-advertised "executive, judi- ial, and administrative authority" whenever and however they wish. The een-ager who yields to the nation- l fraternity's blandishments during Rush Week is tying himself up in many unsuspected ways. I, for in- stance, could not resign from my fra- ernity by writing to anyone at the University of Michigan, where I oined. I had to address national head- uarters, and some professional broth- er there replied that my resignation in tself wasn't enough. The fraternity's 'supreme council" had to pass on it. If he council didn't like my reason for esigning I presumably would be tied o my fraternity for life. I would, in effect, be bound unwillingly to what- soever policy its national officers wished to promulgate.

Permitting off-campus organizations o boss the college's students is dan- gerous, in a discriminatory member- ship policy or wherever else the in- erests of "the national" and the col- ege may not harmonize. Any com- petent college administrator can su- pervise the young people in his charge, f he has no outside interference. He as no real hope of doing his job if the student owes an allegiance elsewhere —an allegiance that may very well in- volve more secrets than even the ritu- als provide. Can any college president justify his abdicating the direction of his young charges? Parents send their children to college expecting not only proper curricular direction, but ade- quate supervision in social affairs. No president or dean can afford to be un- able to govern his students' activities while they are in his charge.

This is, however, precisely the posi- tion of the national fraternities. They arrogate to themselves the power to control social standards of America's young college people. Neither the students themselves, nor the faculty, can challenge the higher, subtle, yet mandatory authority of the fra- ternity.

Not every sorority and fraternity, of course, is as deception-ridden as those I've cited here. Some that came to my attention during our study demon- strated their integrity without ques- tion. But the stakes are high, and to- day's friendly "national" may well prove tomorrow's Svengali. One na- tional sorority president, for example, finally came out against us with all claws bared: "There are definite limi- tations of the power and authority of government and public educational in- stitutions over the rights of individu- als and private organizations engaged in lawful activities." This, from a group permitted to come on our cam- puses on good behavior. The behavior hasn't been good enough, I say.

Through refusal of colleges and uni- versities to recognize national social fraternities and sororities the power of the fraternity professionals can be broken. Each fraternity should be a locally-owned and operated club, in- stead of just one more unit of a chain- store syndicate whose powerful and often cynical national office runs the show. Then, I am confident, the young men and women who as college stu- dents accept the dictation of non-col- legiate authorities with "executive, judicial, and administrative" powers will be able to reassert dominion over their own affairs. No one will lose— except the professional fraternity job- holders and some of their less enlight- ened supporters. Everyone will gain —chiefly the young people and the colleges who then can act independ- ently to end the "problems" with which the national fraternities strug- gle endlessly and, by and large, fruit- lessly.

THE fraternities' power is vast—for good or for evil. Properly channeled by *college* authorities their broad so- cial activities can at last be diverted to the welfare of the educational pro- gram. By the violence of their reaction to the localizing decree of the State University of New York the nationals reveal that they realize it's now a fight for their lives.

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Fiction

Continued from page 34

for anyone else but themselves, not a word about the Germans, or about politics, or about external events like battles, the resistance of England, the news of the world. Not once are we told anything of Pierre's past, of his training, of his profession, of his plans or dreams for the future.

After two hundred pages of such stylized and ethereal writing, however artistic, the reader longs for sparse dialogues, brutal clashes, an unsophisticated expression of hunger, sex, and of longing for other people such as are found in American fiction. Too much style and too much moral idealism can be detrimental to a work of fiction. The translation of "The Flight Into Egypt" by one of the finest experts in America, Frances Frenaye, is admirable.

Melancholy Among the Well-Heeled

"The Empress's Ring," by Nancy Hale *(Charles Scribner's Sons. 192 pp. $3), is a collection of short tales of manners in the upper middle class in Virginia and elsewhere.*

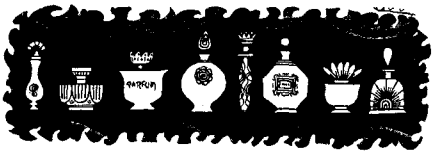
By William Peden

NANCY HALE's new collection of short fiction, "The Empress's Ring," again demonstrates that she is one of our most expert recorders of certain aspects of what a few years ago would have been termed the American upper middle class. Her characters fight no battles to reform society or change the world; they are remarkably indifferent to their contemporaries' struggles to ascend mountains or split atoms. The problems that engross these well-heeled, vaguely melancholy bystanders are primarily personal: how to get along with or without their current spouses, how to dull the edge of the inner hunger of which they are scarcely aware, how to achieve self-justification in a world that has gradually become too hurried, too disorganized, too indifferent.

More than half of Miss Hale's stories center around the contrast between conflicting values, attitudes, or ways of life. My favorite is one of the longest and most ambitious stories in the collection, "The Fox." Here is a memorable commentary, at once compassionate and acidulous, on life among the hunt-club gentry of a Virginia county not unlike Albemarle County in which New England-bred Miss Hale now lives. As a means of explication, Miss Hale employs effectively the device of an outsider (in this story a " 'sort of an explorer from New York . . . an ugly little anthropologist or whatever he was' ") to serve as a foil to the other characters, including an unforgettable heavy-drinking, hard-riding native son who reads only Gibbon, extolls the "simple, normal" life of "happy, fun-loving" fox-hunters, and is convinced that intellectuality and morbidity are one and the same. So deftly does Miss Hale wield her scalpel that she sheds blood without disfiguring the bodies of her subjects.

Equally effective are such stories as "The Empress's Ring," "The First Day of School," and "The Year I Had the Colds," which depict the disappointments and disillusionments of childhood—or, to be more exact, a perceptive adult's recollection of these disappointments. Miss Hale centers such stories around essentially simple incidents or situations: a girl's loss of a cherished ring, a mother's experiences with a sick child, a quiet day at the beach. That she can make such subject matter both meaningful and entertaining is as much a tribute to Miss Hale's sensitive understanding of people and places as it is to her mastery of technique. One of the most remarkable features of Miss Hale's storytelling is the apparent ease with which she avoids caricature and contrivance, the Scylla and Charybdis which menace the writer of that most demanding of fictional forms, the shorter-short story. Only rarely, as in a shoddy little piece like "The Mocha Cakes," are we aware of the grinding of the machinery behind the impeccable surface.

It is unfortunate that Nancy Hale is known best by what is probably her least praiseworthy book, "The Prodigal Women." "The Empress's Ring" should convince more than Miss Hale's *New Yorker* following that she is one of the ablest present-day writers in the field of "fiction of manners."



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The Baltimore Fox

Continued from page 13

ing after his father died, in January 1899, he put on his best suit and appeared in the city room of the *Baltimore Morning Herald*. There was nothing for him, nor on the many nights he came hopefully back. At last he was sent off to see how a rural suburb had survived a blizzard. He found nothing more remarkable than the rumor of a horse-stealing, a five-line report of which, however, appeared in the *Herald* next morning, to the ecstasy of its author.

From then on Mencken would be a newspaperman all his life, and it was the title he liked best. Being also a man proud of his roots he resisted—through the most fabulous fame in American journalistic history—all allurements to move to New York, Chicago, and other metropolises. He stayed in Baltimore and of Baltimore, continuing to live to this day in the modest house his family had taken him to when he was three years old. After six years on the *Herald* he moved in his twenties to the Baltimore *Sunpapers*, with whom he stayed on and off as an editorial writer, columnist, and reporter down to the time of his stroke. Even when he was editing the *Smart Set* and the *American Mercury* he remained never more than a few nights a week in New York, and got on the train as soon as possible to repair from what he called "a third-rate Babylon" to the frowzier charms of Baltimore and "the immense protein factory of Chesapeake Bay."

ALMOST from the start Mencken had a reputation among Baltimore newsmen as a boy wonder, in the sense that he learned everything that can be practically learned about a newspaper in a few years, and that he was extraordinarily industrious and fertile. But he showed in his early youth very few gleams of the invective style that was to make him within a decade or two the terror of the lawmakers, the churches, the businessmen, and the respectable citizenry, first of Baltimore and then of the whole Republic. But the ferment was stewing in him and needed only some strong precipitate to cause him to explode. Nietzsche and Bernard Shaw were the missing sparks. He discovered them in his mid-twenties, matched himself favorably against their Olympian stature, and decided on his life work: to be the native American Voltaire, the enemy of all puritans, the heretic in the Sunday school, the one-man demolition crew of the genteel tradition, the unregenerate neighborhood brat who stretches a string in the alley to trip the bourgeoisie on its pious homeward journey.

The *Sunpapers* soon gave Mencken, aside from his reporting duties, a daily column in which to let off steam. And he at once began to scald all the most respected institutions of the land, peeling off with a daily vengeance the layers of Victorianism that still encrusted American and English life. He did this in a prose that started as a drunken parody of almost any iconoclast he admired. Nietzsche suggested the outlandish metaphors, Macaulay the feigned omniscience, Ambrose Bierce the sheer shockability, and some local journalistic oldsters the flamboyance that was then fashionable in American newspaper writing. Shaw taught him most, and it is possible that the stranger to American writing will at first think of Mencken, as I did, as a windier, inferior Shaw. At his best he offered to the young something of the same tonic: the joy of seeing the enemy soundly hog-tied and hand-cuffed, the sense of sharing the empyrean with an archangel. Both men are superior popular educators who kick up a terrific dust on the intellectual middle plateau between the philistine and the first-rate scholar. What makes both of them more memorable than many of their betters is their style.

But the pleasures of Shaw's prose, like the pleasures of most sermons, are a good deal more malicious than they are advertised. And without wanting to prolong a comparison that is invidious, and perhaps scandalously unfair to Shaw's superior intellect and satirical power, I should like to note that Mencken for one thing is devoid of malice, for another, of puritanism, and so he wholly lacks the shrill spinster note that in the end wearies all but the most dedicated of Shaw's disciples. Shaw is a drumbeater, an evangelist, a hedgehog (in Isaiah Berlin's vivid metaphor) who relates everything he sees and feels to a central vision of what he believes life ought to be. Mencken not only had an innate, foxy suspicion of all hedgehogs; his attempts to focus into a single theory his observations on politics and beliefs are defeated by his insight into the politicians who practise the politics and the human beings who hold the beliefs. And if this is a defeat, it is also the triumph of a first-rate fox over a second-rate hedgehog. What has stood the test of

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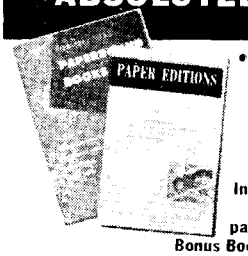

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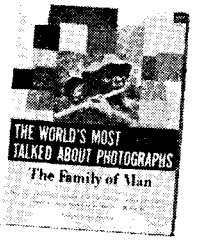

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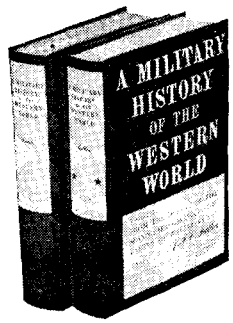

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time and the exhaustion of the Mencken cult is not, it seems to me, his orderly essays on religion or his healthy but noisy crusade against the genteel tradition; it is his reflections on the "the sex uproar" of the Twenties, his reports of political conventions and evolution trials, an evening with Valentino, the memory of a minor revolution in Cuba, a devastating comment on the Gray-Snyder murder—indeed, much of what bookwriters with one foot already in obscurity call "transient" journalism. The one prepared indictment that keeps its clarion freshness through the years is that against the plutocracy. This may be because every time the United States is launched on a new prosperity the plutocrats take to the bridge again to dictate our values while the country-club guests reappear to set the tone of our seagoing manners. The long peroration to "The National Letters," written in 1920, is a classic diagnosis of a disease that seems to afflict us about once every quarter-century; and a Mencken twenty years younger, writing it in 1950, need hardly have blotted a sentence.

Looking over the whole range of his work today we can see that, if he was overrated in his day as a thinker (though not more so than his victims), he was vastly underrated as a humorist with one deadly sensible eye on the behavior of the human animal. He helped along this misconception by constantly reminding people that he was a critic of ideas, which was true only as the ideas were made flesh. He was, in fact, a humorist by instinct and a superb craftsman by temperament. So that when all his private admirations were aped and exhausted there emerged the style of H. L. Mencken, purified and mellowed in later years, a style flexible, fancy-free, ribald, and always beautifully lucid: a native product unlike any other style in the language.

LITERARY I.Q. ANSWERS

1. Christine Mannon in "Mourning Becomes Electra" by Eugene O'Neill. 2. Iris March in "The Green Hat" by Michael Arlen. 3. Rima in "Green Mansions" by W. H. Hudson. 4. Ellen Harland in "Leave Her to Heaven" by Ben Ames Williams. 5. Eustacia Vye in "The Return of the Native" by Thomas Hardy. 6. Rebecca de Winter in "Rebecca" by Daphne du Maurier. 7. Margherite Gauthier in "La Dame aux Camelias" by Alexandre Dumas, fils. 8. Anna Karenina in "Anna Karenina" by Leo Tolstoy. 9. Emma Rouault in "Madame Bovary" by Gustave Flaubert. 10. Hedda Gabler in "Hedda Gabler" by Henrik Ibsen.

America's Sam Johnson

Continued from page 13

Soho; Mencken in Greenwich Village's Luchow's; spouting dicta, purring gently as the amenities progress, roaring out in high dudgeon at the threat of insurrection. A timid guest, less sanguine than they, balks before his groaning plate; Johnson, rolling himself, admonishes him, "Sir, a good dinner lubricates business"; Mencken cries, "Defy your bowels! Put a tooth in that ham. I knew the hog well—a sound Calvinist!" Pensioners are discussed; Johnson, not yet a pensioner himself, quotes from his "Dictionary," "He is a slave of state, Sir, hired by a stipend to obey his master"; Mencken quotes from his "Little Book in C Major," "Pensioner? A kept patriot." One of the company slyly introduces familiar bugbears, and the czars respond. "Foote," says Johnson, "is quite impartial. He lies of everybody." "Nero fiddled while Rome burned," Mencken snorts, "but Coolidge only snores."

It is not surprising to find that each man was drawn to the political arena against his better judgment and that each met disaster there. They hankered after power because they found its wielding agreeable, but their leadership, like all leadership worth having, was effective only in their own bailiwicks; when they entered foreign territories they were lost. The arts of the politician may be reprehensible, and they usually are, but by the very nature of their influence on society they can never be contemptible. Yet Johnson and Mencken held them in contempt. "So, Sir, you laugh at schemes of political improvement," Boswell asked; "Why, Sir," Johnson replied, "most schemes of political improvement are very laughable things." "The real charm of the United States," Mencken commented, "is that it is the only comic country ever heard of."

Neither went so far as to run for public office, although Johnson once considered it and asked God to help him "direct the doubtful, and instruct the ignorant." But each turned eagerly to political pamphleteering when the occasion arose, and each supported a shabby cause: Johnson, the malefactions of George III; Mencken, the banalities of Alfred M. Landon. Neither Toryism appears to have been inspired by anything more than inherited prejudice. Johnson wrote "Taxation No Tyranny" at a time when enlightened English opinion was solidly behind the colonies, and Mencken, who would as lief pray with Kit Smart as anyone else, submitted his polemics of the middle 1930s to the Hearst and

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Macfadden press, where they were blatantly displayed to the discomfort of most of his followers. Perhaps the deans were merely proving cherished precepts; Johnson believed men and dogs grew worse as they grew older, and Mencken was convinced Mencken did. While about it, they illustrated another Mencken maxim, that "nothing is so abject and pathetic as a politician who has lost his job, save only a retired stud-horse," for George III and Landon lost, and Johnson and Mencken went down with them.

That is, for a time. Abject and pathetic though they were in defeat, neither stallion could be pastured so long as he still lived, and each returned to run again magnificently, Johnson with his "Lives of the Poets"; Mencken with his "Days," his "Dictionary of Quotations," his final "Language" supplements. It was, indeed, their capacity to blunder, and to rise above blunder, which marked them finally as first-rate men, as giants serene and invulnerable, inaccessible by beanstalk or slingshot. They erred because they were incautious, and they were incautious because they fought to the last barricade with a gusto and a recklessness which astonished their fellow men. No human being can profitably attack another more human than he, more himself than he, more saturated with a love of living than he; none could attack Mencken or Johnson without seeming sour and jealous and frustrated by the poverty of his own spirit.

Thus they triumphed; thus they endure and will endure. Mencken is of our own time, and so we are denied perspective in our examination of him. We can judge but by history, and history presents no more splendid parallel than the lives of its two greatest lexicographers. Johnson's flame outshone that of his detractors, for it burned brighter. Seventy-two years after his death Macaulay wrote that "the memory of other authors is kept alive by their works. But the memory of Johnson keeps many of his works alive." So, we may hazard, will the memory of Mencken.

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Emerson spoke to the half dozen seniors of the Harvard Divinity School and earnestly begged them to find God in their own hearts rather than in sacred writ. Then the fat was in the fire. . . . Emerson was not asked to speak again at Harvard for thirty years.

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CLASSIFIED ADVERTISEMENTS are accepted for things wanted or unwanted; personal services; literary or publishing offers, unclassified elsewhere; miscellaneous items appealing to a special intelligent clientele; jobs wanted; houses or camps for rent; tutoring; traveling companions; ideas for sale; opinions (limited to 50 lines). All advertisements must be consonant with the character of The Saturday Review. Rates per insertion: 40¢ per word; 10-word minimum. Count 2 extra words for Box and Numbers. Rates for several insertions—52 times 32¢ per word; 26 times 34¢ per word; 13 times 36¢ per word; 6 times 38¢ per word. Full payment must be received seventeen days before publication. We forward all mail received in answer to box numbers and submit postage bills periodically. Mail to be called for at this office will be held 30 days only. Address: Personals Department, The Saturday Review, 25 West 45 Street, New York 36, N. Y.

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SR's Index to 16mm reviews and articles. Send 10¢ to Films, The Saturday Review, 25 West 45 St., NYC 36.

FILM IMAGES, 1860 Broadway, NYC 23. Write for *16mm* catalogue.

(Continued on page 66)

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FILMS

(Continued from page 65)

8MM prints "FRIENDS," featuring Mary Pickford, Lionel Barrymore, Henry B. Walthall, and Harry Carey as directed by D. W. Griffith for Biograph, may be purchased at $12 from Knoll Theatre, 6612 South Western Ave., Los Angeles 47, Calif.

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KINGSLEY DOUBLE-CROSTIC NO. 1120

Reg. U.S. Patent Office

By Doris Nash Wortman

DEFINITIONS	WORDS
A. One who uses shifts and evasions in arguments.	111 50 130 184 8 170 124 176
B. Dislike with intense antipathy.	140 55 29 71 45 59
C. Diverse.	160 139 62 143 39 129
D. Object only conceived by reason.	100 10 37 77 56 34 146 52
E. Election by show of hands.	49 126 118 66 147 164 137 178 65
F. Object of Jonathan Oldbuck's interest in Scott's novel.	158 153 134 168 19 138 110
G. The golfer's favorite hole.	92 152 79 171 57 180 86 95 149 2
H. Popular roasted seed (2 wds.).	38 78 151 54 105 109 186 127 113 172
I. One name for three stars in Orion's belt.	44 177 156 117 87 48 123
J. Venomous marine serpent of India (Hydrophis).	83 165 115 42 141 182
K. Foil or wire of gold, silver, or brass.	28 47 68 60 122 125 18
L. Most peculiar kind (2 wds.).	69 31 96 74 174 63 163 169 128 185

DEFINITIONS	WORDS
M. Ralph Nickleby's clerk who kept cracking his knuckles.	97 99 90 179 58
N. Devotees of the exquisite.	157 32 70 73 21 12 46 82
O. Indecorous, shameless.	189 85 26 16 35 76 142 72
P. Referring to something else from what is presently referred to (2 wds.).	132 150 11 114 64 33 116
Q. Certain person whose health is drunk (2 wds.).	155 25 67 173 133 81 40 1
R. Attachment to hold earphone and transmitter at once in place.	102 27 94 14 144 7 24
S. Appellation of Hipponax, 6th cent. B. C. (2 wds., with "the").	162 17 188 183 136 51 61 6 148 84 3 175
T. One whose profession is sybotic in character.	159 22 5 190 101 80 103 181 75
U. One of chief ports of U.S.S.R., usually blocked by ice for less than one month of the year.	107 191 93 36 131 41
V. Continuous, whole.	121 4 154 13 167 23 89 187 119
W. Wimbledon champion, 1955.	106 161 135 120 166 104 145
X. Consisting of similar parts.	112 9 43 91 53 15 88 30 98 20 108

DIRECTIONS

To solve this puzzle you must guess twenty-odd WORDS, the definitions of which are given in the column headed DEFINITIONS. Alongside each definition, there is a row of dashes—one for each letter in the required word. When you have guessed a word, write it on the dashes, and also write each letter in the correspondingly numbered square of the puzzle diagram. . . . When the squares are all filled in, you will find that you have completed a quotation from some published work. If read up and down, the letters in the diagram have no meaning. . . . Black squares indicate ends of words; if there is no black square at the right side of the diagram, the word carries over to the next line. . . . When all the WORDS are filled in, their initial letters spell the name of the author and the title of the piece from which the quotation has been taken. Of great help to the solver are this acrostic feature and the relative shapes of words in the diagram as they develop. Authority for spellings and definitions is Webster's New International Dictionary, Second Edition.

1 Q	2 G	3 S	■	4 V	5 T	6 S	7 R	—	8 A	9 X	10 D	11 P	■	12 N	13 V	14 R
15 X	■	16 O	17 S	18 K	19 F	20 X	21 N	■	22 T	23 V	24 R	25 Q	■	26 O	27 R	28 K
29 B	30 X	31 L	■	32 N	33 P	34 D	35 O	■	36 U	37 D	38 H	39 C	40 Q	■	41 U	42 J
■	43 X	44 I	■	45 B	46 N	47 K	48 I	49 E	50 A	51 S	52 D	53 X	■	54 H	55 B	56 D
57 G	■	58 M	59 B	60 K	61 S	62 C	63 L	64 P	65 E	■	66 E	67 Q	68 K	69 L	70 N	71 B
■	72 O	73 N	74 L	■	75 T	76 O	77 D	78 H	79 G	■	80 T	81 Q	82 N	■	83 J	84 S
85 O	86 G	■	87 I	88 X	89 V	■	90 M	91 X	92 G	93 U	■	94 R	95 G	96 L	■	97 M
98 X	■	99 M	100 D	101 T	■	102 R	103 T	104 W	105 H	■	106 W	107 U	■	108 X	109 H	110 F
■	111 A	112 X	113 H	114 P	■	115 J	116 P	■	117 I	118 E	119 V	■	120 W	121 V	122 K	■
123 I	124 A	■	125 K	126 E	127 H	128 L	129 C	■	130 A	131 U	■	132 P	133 Q	134 F	■	135 W
■	136 S	137 E	138 F	139 C	140 B	■	141 J	142 O	■	143 C	■	144 R	145 W	146 D	147 E	148 S
■	149 G	150 P	■	151 H	152 G	153 F	154 V	■	155 Q	156 I	157 N	158 F	159 T	160 C	161 W	162 S
163 L	■	164 E	165 J	166 W	■	167 V	168 F	169 L	170 A	171 G	172 H	173 Q	■	174 L	175 S	176 A
177 I	178 E	179 M	180 G	181 T	■	182 J	183 S	184 A	185 L	■	186 H	187 V	188 S	189 O	190 T	191 U

Solution of last week's Double-Crostic will be found on page 65 of this issue.

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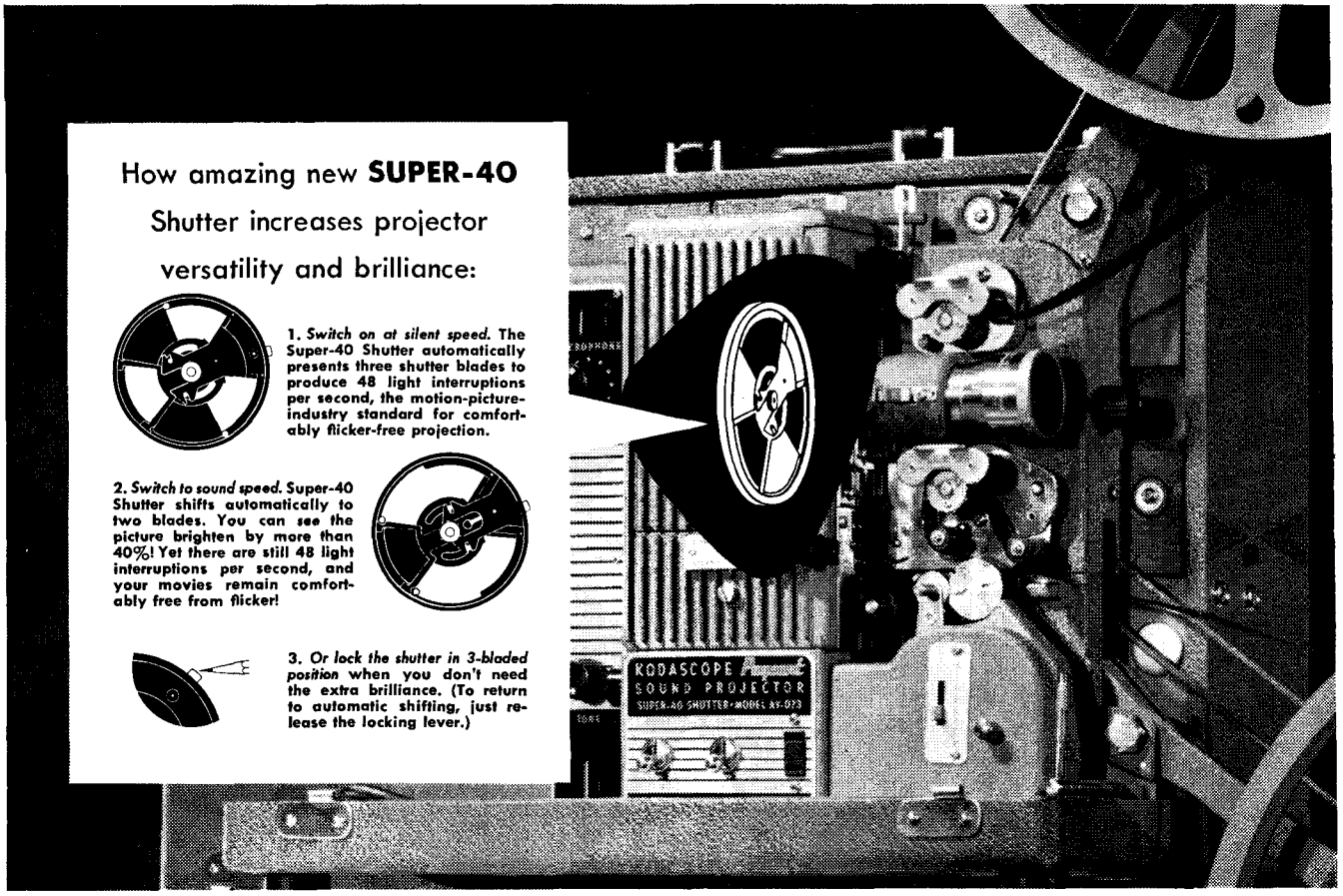
Kodak shutter development combines sound-and-silent versatility with 40% extra screen brilliance!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9–76

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